The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 10, 1905.

The Week.

President Roosevelt's ready bonhomie never stood him in better stead than in enabling him to avoid so deftly all the awkwardnesses of etiquette and precedence and malapropos which lay lurking for him at the meeting on the *Mayflower* on Saturday. Easy informality was the salvation of the occasion. The nervous and doubting envoys saw visibly embodied before them that "backwoods Charlemagne of empires new" who, as Lowell pictured him,

"—meeting Cæsar's self, would slap his back, Call him 'Old Horse,' and challenge to a drink."

And if the President's bearing was a masterpiece of tact, the language of his toast to a just and lasting peace was such as befitted the great occasion. When all Europe applauds his humane sentiments, Americans may be forgiven for feeling that their lungs "draw braver air."

Much concern is expressed in Washington over the question what to do for "Loomis, Acting," who is just landed, preceded by his own notification that he should arrive very tired. To the mind of official Washington it is, of course, unthinkable that he should become "Loomis, Passive." Something must be done for him. It is not for the likes of us to rush into the high spheres where his fate is under consideration, but we humbly suggest that the difficulty is one of a multiplication of functions on Loomis's part. He has essayed the double rôle of diplomat-financier, but played it badly. Why not now ask him to consent to a division of labor? Diplomat alone, it is at last perceived even at Washington, and eke at Oyster Bay, he could not now be, except upon the theory of Bagehot that a diplomat must be not only an agent, but a spectacle. Since Pat Egan, nobody would be more of "a spectacle" than Loomis in any conceivable embassy. We are therefore compelled by the severest logic to propose a business career for the fatigued Loomis. A bare hint to Mr. Paul Morton should be sufficient. Lovely and pleasant in their official lives, he and Loomis are in their whitewash not divided.

Americans interested in growing rice are hoping to secure a wider market in Cuba through action on the part of the Cuban Congress lowering the import duty on the article. This is a laudable ambition. We trust it may succeed. But we cannot say that we are much impressed by the chop-stick logic on which the rice-growers base their plea to the Cuban Senate. They aver first, that the United States is facing an annual deficit of $25,000,000; second, that $14,000,000 of revenue is lost through Cuban reciprocity; third, that the offset of $7,000,000 increase in our exports to Cuba is inconsiderable; and conclude that if reciprocity is to be extended beyond the original five-year period, the American rice-grower's good will must be bought by lowered taxes on American-grown rice. The chain of reasoning is logically a rope of sand. Because we spend $25,000,000 more than we raise by taxation, Cuba, forsooth, must examine her own conscience whether she is paying her due share of our taxes. The "sacrifice" of $14,000,000 revenue assumes jauntily that the Cubans and not our own sugar consumers are the beneficiaries of the reduced rate on Cuban sugar. Finally, our gain through reciprocity is calculated solely on the ground of the small increase in private profit of our exporters. And the conclusion, that we shall not again be outwitted in a reciprocity treaty with Cuba unless the favor of our rice-growers be bought by a low rice duty, is a crowning piece of inconsequence savoring of blackmail.

It will be worth watching how far the Senate will incline an ear to suggestions of tariff reciprocity when the retaliatory shoe begins to pinch certain industrial interests. The Chinese boycott on American goods provoked at once an executive order softening the asperities in the administration of our exclusion law. There is some reason for believing that the rigors of the law itself may be realized and softened when Senators learn that the pocket-book nerve of their constituents has been touched. Moreover, the advisability of tariff concessions may be borne in upon the Senate afresh when the new German tariff becomes operative. Its double line of duties is admirably constructed as a diplomatic club. So, the United States does not like the new higher level of duties on agricultural products? The Imperial Government will be pleased to give us the benefit of the lower duties, if we can arrange a little concession on German products. Our State Department is said to have informed Baron Speck von Sternburg, the German ambassador, that it is futile to offer new reciprocity treaties to the Senate while that body continues in its present state of mind. The Ambassador, however, is in the fortunate tactical position of being able to sleep soundly over the matter, and to let us walk the floor.

One can easily picture the satisfaction of a wheat-grower in North Dakota as he reads the assurances from Washington that the new German tariff will not, after all, hurt anybody in this country. He notes that the duty upon wheat will be 49 cents a bushel instead of 23. The corn-grower, too, will know how to appreciate the rise on his product from 10 cents to 31 cents a bushel. Though Germany raises the duty on fresh beef from $1.62 a hundred pounds to $4.87, and on salted or pickled beef from $1.84 to $6.45, the farmers are reminded, for their comfort, that copper and cotton are still admitted free. The duty on lumber is to be increased about 75 per cent., that on machinery very materially, and on mineral and cottonseed oil also. Still, there is a fractional reduction in the tariff on builders' hardware, to cheer the lumbering, milling, farming, and livestock interests. Crude phosphates for fertilizers will still be admitted free of duty, so no wonder that the *Tribune's* Washington correspondent's optimism is boundless. He should be asked to speak before the coming reciprocity convention at Chicago, where an imperfect understanding of the beneficence of our retaliatory tariff policy is likely to be betrayed.

Last May the Bureau of Manufactures was instigated to begin an active effort on the part of the United States Government to establish lines of large and swift steamers between American and Brazilian ports. The ostensible purpose was to afford an enlarged market for our manufactures in Brazil. The Bureau requested an expert opinion from Mr. Lincoln Hutchinson, its special agent, who, in a hard-headed reply, simply demolishes the whole foundation for the subsidy scheme. In his old-fashioned and wholly unemotional analysis, Mr. Hutchinson says he doubts the utility of the proposed stimulus to our export trade for two reasons. The first is, that Brazilian importers assert they never have any more difficulty in obtaining goods ordered from New York than in getting goods from London or the Continent. The second reason is, that the countries trading with Brazil which have recently made the greatest effort to stimulate steamship facilities "have been the least successful in holding their Brazilian trade." England, France, and Germany have experienced of late a greater shrinkage of their trade to Brazil than has the United States. Mr. Hutchinson concludes that our freight facilities are adequate, and makes a home thrust at the extension of Government functions by adding that our present mail service to Brazil might be greatly improved. A more complete ex-

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posure of the hollowness of the subsidy grab could not be desired.

A national quarantine service is brought distinctly nearer by the appeal of Louisiana to the Federal Government. When a city and a State where jealousy of national control in such matters has been strongest, throw up their hands and implore the authorities at Washington to take charge of the fight against yellow fever, the end of merely local and conflicting safeguards against a national invasion of epidemic disease cannot be far away. The President's response was prompt, but guarded. He telegraphed the Surgeon-General to do everything in his power to aid Gov. Blanchard, and to "notify me what further action is advisable and possible for the Federal authorities." Congress will undoubtedly be called upon to make the powers and duties of the national Government larger and more precise in all that relates to oversight of the public health. This is the way in which constitutional changes gradually come about in this country. A crying practical need presents itself, and then we adjust the law of the land to meet it. On purely theoretical grounds, the change would be opposed; but the concrete emergency carries off the argument triumphantly.

The transfer of all the forest reserves from a division of the Interior Department to the Forest Service in the Department of Agriculture, and the consequent consolidation of all branches of the national Government's forest work, were accomplished by an act signed by the President on February 1. For some time there had been a rather clumsy system of coöperation by which trained foresters were detached for service in the reserves; but the change obviously makes for efficiency. How great is the area now set apart under Government control to protect the watersheds and incidentally furnish a future source of fuel and timber, is hardly realized here in the East. Mr. Gifford Pinchot, in a recent article on "Forestry Abroad and at Home," gives 63,308,319 acres as the extent of the sixty-two reserves on January 1. Among those established in the last six months is the Lassen Peak reserve, in California, of nearly a million acres. Another, in the State of Washington, is said to have "half the size of Connecticut," while a Denver newspaper recently figured that the forest-reserve area in Colorado has been increased since January 1 from 2,903,460 acres to 8,252,619. These alone would bring the total up to some 70,000,000 acres—that is, considerably larger than New York and Pennsylvania combined, with Connecticut and Rhode Island thrown in. Nor, for practical purposes, can the activity of some States in creating reserves of their own be ignored. New York has one a little larger than Rhode Island, and Pennsylvania one of about half that extent, while Michigan and Minnesota are named by Mr. Pinchot among other States that are following the same policy.

The astonishing figures of traffic through the ship canal at Sault Ste. Marie, given wide publicity in connection with the celebration of the fiftieth anniversary of its opening, should remind us that *we* have under way some necessary canal improvements. It was a favorite argument of those who opposed the project to widen and deepen the Erie Canal in 1903, that water transportation could not compete with railways, and that canal construction was a particularly foolish waste of money. But the "Soo" has accommodated a volume of traffic which has increased from 14,503 tons a year to more than 35,000,000, with an average annual increase of 20 per cent. The lesson has not been lost upon Canada, where in recent years some $87,000,000 has been spent on artificial waterways, $30,000,000 going to the construction of the short Welland Canal that locks boats past Niagara Falls. Work on the Georgian Bay Canal, designed to cut out the long Lake Erie détour, has been pushed vigorously, and Montreal's share of the grain and ore shipping of the Northwest will, upon its completion, be further increased. A considerable part of Canada's gain is, and will continue to be, New York's loss. If anything can serve to impress upon the State authorities the importance of pushing the work on the Erie Canal, it should be the "Soo" celebration.

Little attempt is longer made to conceal the fact that both political parties drew upon that mysterious $685,000 Equitable loan. A management which distributed its favors between Depew and Hill would naturally see to it that the treasuries of either party did not go empty. Treasurer Bliss of the Republican National Committee resents as "improper" the question whether any Equitable money was turned over to him. But his sensitive delicacy must not animate the investigating committee of the Legislature. They must drive such questions home, and not be too nice about it. The very fact that political as well as financial scandals are to be inquired into, puts the investigators upon their honor to go to the bottom. We hope their honor will be spur enough; but it is not a bad thing that Jerome stands behind ready to prick them on if their honor is in danger of becoming somewhat Falstaffian.

Mrs. Clarence Mackay's election to the School Board at Roslyn shows at least one way of solving the question of what to do with our women of wealth to keep them from boring themselves and their kind to death. We sincerely trust that this excellent example will be followed, if only to arouse greater interest in school elections. In too many New York towns and villages, school affairs are still in the hands of those whose idea of a public school is a cross-roads shanty with a single ill-fitted and plodding teacher. Some knowledge of the strides made in pedagogy is requisite, and to be conscious of them by no means indicates a passion for "fads and frills." But, aside from this, women of leisure and culture ought to find work of this kind increasingly attractive; they have the time that few men have, and, fortunately enough, they care very much less for political influences than they do for the proper education of children. Incidentally, Mrs. Mackay's election brings to mind again some of the inconsistencies in woman suffrage. In New Jersey, women may vote on school appropriations and may serve on school boards, though they may not vote for members of these boards; in Massachusetts the case is reversed. In New York the suffrage carries with it the right to vote for trustees and on appropriations, and service on the boards is permitted. On the other hand, women property-owners may vote on questions of taxation in villages and towns, but, inconsistently enough, not in the small cities.

The Pennsylvania Legislature, at its recent session, authorized the Governor of that State to communicate with the chief executives of other commonwealths for the purpose of securing uniform divorce laws. Accordingly, communications have already been addressed by Gov. Pennypacker to Gov. Higgins of New York and to Gov. Stokes of New Jersey. These States, and doubtless all the others, are requested to send representatives to a congress of delegates which is to meet in Washington, and will attempt to draft a general law to be sent to all the governors, in the expectation that it will be submitted to the favorable consideration of all the State legislatures. The responses from the two contiguous States have been, on the whole, cordial; and while Gov. Higgins disclaims authority to appoint delegates to the convention in question, he has referred the matter to the New York commissioners for the promotion of uniformity of legislation in the United States, and has expressed the hope that the commissioners may find it possible to attend the projected congress. Whatever the specific outcome of this movement, it evidences the general feeling that uniform legislation in this matter is highly desirable.

The colored people of Florida are jubilant over a decision of the Supreme Court of that State declaring unconstitu-

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tional the "Jim Crow" street-car law which became effective on July first. There are two street-car companies in Jacksonville. One, owned by Boston capitalists, is reported to have paid $10,000 to prevent the passage of the bill. The other is largely owned by colored people, and was not affected by the boycott immediately instituted against the Boston company. Similar action was taken in Pensacola, the negroes there refusing to ride in cars which were divided for the races. A colored law firm of Jacksonville, Messrs. Wetmore & Purcell, at once prepared a test case, their belief being that the law, which also conferred police powers upon the conductors, was contrary to both Federal and State Constitutions, violating particularly section two of the Fourteenth Amendment to the Federal Constitution. Their contentions were upheld by the Circuit Court, and, four days later, by the Supreme Court of Florida—a result which pleases the railroad companies quite as much as the colored people, and may easily result in attacks on similar laws in other States. An amusing feature of this case was the giving to the negroes the front seats in the cars of the line owned by colored people, and placing the "white crow" section in the rear—an arrangement which naturally appealed to the humor of the colored folk.

On July 15 Brussels was *en fête* in honor of the seventy-fifth anniversary of Belgian independence. Belgium can point to a great increase in population (from 3,700,000 to 7,000,000) and in wealth since 1831, and has doubtless made a distinct place for herself. Her Congo venture, as to which the balance, whether pecuniary or moral, cannot yet be struck, has given her a name among the nations, though it has not substantially improved her international relations. Indeed, what has been called "the gravitation" of Belgium towards Germany has probably been due in part to resentment at English criticism of Belgian methods on the Congo. Fear, too, that England would not effectually guarantee Belgian independence, in case of another war on the Continent, has something to do with it. There seems to be as yet no ground for such panic as Demetrius C. Boulger expresses in the *Nineteenth Century* over the prospect of Belgium dropping into the outstretched hands of Germany; but the inclination of Brussels to look to Berlin rather than to London is clear.

Trouble continues smouldering in Crete. "Taken on deposit," in M. Hanotaux's phrase, by the European Powers, that island has not in all respects behaved as its protectors fondly hoped. The people have shown a vexing desire to say what sort of government they wish. They have for years desired union with Greece. The appointment by the Powers of a Grecian prince as High Commissioner in Crete seemed to the inhabitants a distinct encouragement of this long-standing hope of theirs. Yet no sooner do they begin to express their preferences, though in somewhat violent fashion it must be admitted, than all the talk is of stern repression. A recent dispatch from Rome said that Russia regarded the Cretans as practically in a state of insurrection, and was, characteristically, for putting it down roughly. The Italian Government, on the other hand, was for the familiar but futile remedy of a "pacific blockade." But none of the obstacles placed in the way of the popular will can long avail, provided it still be true that "the unanimous and unconquerable desire" of the Cretans is for a union with the Greeks in a single nation.

The revolt in German Southwest Africa obstinately declines to be put down, despite the fact that it has been officially declared ended quite as often as our own "ladrone" fighting in the Philippines. So far, the cost to the German Government of this year and a half of war has been about 65 millions of dollars and fully 1,000 lives, while the real end is not yet in sight. The German officers plan the most scientific traps, but the prey manages to wriggle out somehow just when it is officially reported as "wholly surrounded." Conditions in the colony are about as unhappy as could be imagined. The loyal natives complain that they are abused, the settlers are very angry at the high-handed methods of the military, business is almost at a standstill. The army authorities enforce the most despotic military rule, in the course of which they recently suspended the only newspaper containing news of the insurrection, because of its criticism of the official management. Thus the settlers are left in absolute ignorance of what is going on, and the soldiers vent their ill-humor by blaming the English for permitting Cape Colony to be a recruiting-ground for the natives. It is also alleged that the English authorities fail to disarm the followers of Maharero when they are driven across the border, and permit them to return to the warpath when rested and refreshed. Altogether, the spectacle is one which should afford much food for thought among Imperialists the world over.

Jules Roche, in a recent article in *Figaro*, reviews the German budget. He complains of its intricacy and complexity, as contrasted with the budgetary statements of Great Britain, and, while admitting that the French budget is not blameless in this respect, declares that it has never attained the *magnifique incohérence* of the German. The complicated character of the German budget statement is due to two facts. First, the German Empire is a federal State, and transactions between the Imperial Government and the twenty-six constituent States make a simple statement of financial conditions difficult. Second, Germany is engaged largely in industry, such as railroads, coal mines, and the like. This results in swelling the figures of both gross receipts and gross expenses. M. Roche, however, is able to disentangle the following facts about German finances: Their total is steadily growing; the items that embrace the greater part of the increase are expenditures on the army and navy; the principal of the public debt is steadily on the increase. As illustrative of these tendencies he cites the following totals of the expenses of the Imperial Government:

1874	841 million francs
1894-95	1673 million francs
1904-05	2549 million francs

The Imperial army expenditure for 1905-6 is set at 79 millions in excess of that required for the current fiscal year; the naval expenditures promise an annual growth of 31 millions for the next budgetary year. The debt of the Empire and the constituent States was, in 1901, 16,728,000,000 francs. Since then, in the debts of the Empire, of Prussia, and Bavaria alone, the increase has been 1,797,000,000 francs; and the total today is near 19 milliards.

Lord Curzon made it very plain in his speech at Simla on July 18 how near the Balfour Government came to receiving his resignation in connection with the Indian army administration issue raised by Lord Kitchener. The Viceroy frankly stated that this question was originally referred to him by the Home Government seven months ago, with a request for the Indian Government's opinion. A month before, to his intense surprise, he not only ascertained that his advice "had not been so fortunate as to meet with the acceptance" of the King's advisers, but also found himself instructed to "introduce without delay a form of military administration" of which he "learned only for the first time in the dispatch of the Secretary of State." Naturally, Lord Curzon was incensed, and, also naturally, he made such a vigorous protest that Balfour found himself compelled to withdraw the offensive plan or to lose Curzon's services. He promptly backed down; or, to put it more politely, "accepted the modifications" offered by the Viceroy. Inevitably, this method of governing India has not made a very favorable impression either there or at home. Moreover, it makes ridiculous the Balfour pretence that his Government should be retained because of the alleged ticklish condition of foreign affairs. A blunderer at home can blunder even worse abroad.

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HOUSETOP DIPLOMACY.

There have been peace conferences many, and plenipotentiaries have met before, but we doubt if the world's history up till now can show the sort of diplomatic shouting from the housetops to which we have just been listening. It is certainly a complete break with the old tradition. Good or bad, wise or foolish, the customary way of envoys on a special mission has been to maintain impenetrable reserve. Doubtless this has often led to a false reputation for wisdom—"accounted wise for saying nothing." But even those diplomats who really had something to say when they opened their lips, have felt it both prudent and decent to do their first talking to their fellow-negotiators in secret. Louis Napoleon, it will be remembered, made the mistake of underestimating Bismarck, when the latter was Ambassador to France, because he was so "open" in his conversation. That was an innovation which did not always work well even in Bismarck's skilful hands. The general rule has remained as Lord Salisbury described it—four men sitting down at a table, to settle quietly and secretly international controversies.

Democracy, publicity, the modern press have changed all that, apparently. Diplomacy has to be, not merely popularized, but plebificated. Secrecy is intolerable. Reserve is almost an insult. Oriental calm and Tartar stolidity have both to yield to this rising and imperious demand that everything be blabbed. We have had daily a sort of duel between the diplomatic representatives of Japan and Russia. Interview responds to interview, and statement answers statement. It is a sort of furious but long-range bombardment. Tokio is reported one morning to be enraged because St. Petersburg talks of the possibility of continuing the war. The newspapers of either belligerent country and of neutral nations are filled with contradictory accounts of what Japan's terms will be, what Russia's maximum, and what the final result will be. The fact that M. Witte takes a ride in an automobile, or visits the Stock Exchange, is cabled to Russia as a "good indication"; while the Japanese were triumphant, if we may believe the reports, over the announcement that President Roosevelt was to receive them a half hour in advance of the Russians. The novel thing is, not that we should have such enforced or sought publicity—we are accustomed to it nearly everywhere else—but that it should be annexed to the most serious diplomatic negotiations. If this is modern diplomacy—diplomacy by megaphone—it gives fresh point to Coleridge's taunt, "Your art diplomatic is stuff."

Of course, there is little or nothing really revealed in all the clamor. The man in the street thinks that he knows the thoughts of Komura's heart and the self-communings of M. Witte, whereas in fact all that he has before him is a mass of confused rumor, unfounded assertion, and unauthorized speculation. The surprising thing is, however, that the parties to the negotiation have seen fit to add to these untrustworthy oracles. They seem to have deliberately darkened counsel by words without meaning. Mr. Sato has had his carefully studied interview every day, recurrent as the sun. The Russians have given him as good as he sent. Little that a reasonable man can attach importance to has emerged in all the noise, but the noise itself has been unprecedented. At the Congress of Berlin, every member was pledged to reticence in advance and sworn to secrecy at the time. Even our own peace conference at Paris in 1898, after a war which had been conducted very much as a form of newspaper advertisement, was a model of dignified reserve compared with the preliminary clatter of the Portsmouth conference. The new diplomacy seems full upon us.

That there may be compensating good in it we do not deny. We shall not quarrel with those who see in it an appeal to the considerate judgment of mankind. Both Russia and Japan may be forgiven if they are anxious to stand well with the civilized world. Perhaps all their initial skirmishing in the press is to be interpreted as a proof that they recognize the existence of a great court of international opinion, and are anxious to assure their standing in it. It is profoundly true, we believe, that there is to-day a consensus of humane minds throughout the world, and that no nation can afford to disregard, much less defy, it. Yet it is the final result at Portsmouth, after all, and not all this thundering in the index, which will have to be submitted to the verdict of civilized nations; and we cannot but think it would have been better for all concerned if there had not been so much diplomatic beating of the air in advance.

Democracy seems to demand more and more that everything be done in public. It is impatient to know and to bruit abroad what is whispered in the ear in the closet. But it has got to be taught, or to learn by bitter experience, that some kinds of public business cannot be transacted in mass-meeting and with brass bands. It is of the essence of diplomacy to be delicate, confidential, secret—at least in the early stages of an important negotiation; and, if we are now going to insist upon an echoing publicity, to demand that plenipotentiaries live in glass houses, think aloud, and entrust their official cipher to the reporters, we shall be destroying what has long been, and may long continue to be if let alone, a most useful instrument. Even democracy has to delegate power to somebody, and trust him to be discreet and closemouthed in affairs of high import; and if Hotspur's saying ever comes to be read, "Secret thou art, but yet a diplomat," there will be an end of diplomacy.

OVERHAULING THE CIRCUMLOCUTION OFFICE.

A well-known college professor complained recently that when he told people that he lectured on "Administration," nobody knew what he meant. The lay graduate supposed it was a new-fangled name for some course in politics, while practising lawyers assumed that it meant the administering upon estates of decedents. Even when the student of *Verwaltungslehre* explained that he was lecturing upon "the administration of government," the far-off look in the eye of his auditors convinced him that the phrase carried no definite message to the bewildered inquirer. Despite the domestication of the term "administration" in our political vocabulary, the word commonly connotes the personnel of the executive department, and not the art of conducting governmental business. We are just awaking to the fact that there is an art of coördinating and managing public business with economy, dispatch, and strictly located responsibility. It is our realization of this fact that explains the recent creation, by the President, of the Committee on Department Methods.

Our tardiness in appreciating the importance of scientific administration is to be explained on historical grounds. Our governments, State and Federal, were charged originally with such modest tasks that the various bureaus did not very frequently impinge upon each other. Moreover, the prevalent individualism of our earlier history created such almost universal habits of self-reliance and bold initiative that the ordinary successful American citizen was presumably a skilful administrator. Private business had been the school in which our early class of competent bureaucrats got their training. But even in those halcyon days there was not wanting evidence of dry rot in Government bureaus. John Randolph, chairman of the Ways and Means Committee in 1807, wanted an explanation from Secretary Robert Smith concerning certain items in the navy estimates, and described his experience thus:

> "The Secretary called up his chief clerk, who knew very little more of the business than his master. I propounded a question to the head of the department; he turned to the clerk like a boy who cannot say his lesson and with imploring countenance beseeches aid; the clerk with much assurance gabbled out some commonplace jargon which I would not take for sterling; an explanation was required, and both were dumb. This pantomime was repeated at every new item, until, disgusted and ashamed for the degraded situation of the principal, I took leave without pursuing the subject. . . . There was not a single question relating to the Department that the Secretary could answer."

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It is sincerely to be hoped that our Cabinet ministers to-day are better informed than the victim of John Randolph's hectoring. They will else make a bad fist in returning answers to the one hundred and seven printed questions which the Committee on Department Methods has fired point blank not only at each Department, but at each bureau and division thereof.

The present situation in our executive departments has resulted in large part from the rapid growth, and frequently the very unsymmetrical growth, of different bureaus. The curious medley of tasks entrusted to the Treasury until the recent creation of the Department of Commerce and Labor illustrates the case. Lighthouse inspection, Alaskan seals, and supervision of immigration had been tacked seriatim to the previous fiscal functions of the Treasury, and there were a dozen other jobs falling to the Treasury fully as alien to its proper field of action. But, besides the growth of the departments, the necessity of precluding corrupt methods carried with it a certain check upon administrative facility and dispatch. To make sure that money did not get into the wrong hands, a series of artificial hurdles—audits and counter-audits, vouchers, and warrants—was erected to trip up the nimble but erring sixpence. In similar manner, to prevent offices from becoming spoils, pure and simple, civil-service examinations were set, and the sifting process, though immeasurably helpful to the morale of the Government employees, was a trifle slow. What we gained in purity, we partly lost in speed. And unfortunately even the merit system cannot guarantee that a crust of bureaucratic custom shall not form on the surface of government activities.

It is said to be President Roosevelt's discovery of these mal-adjustments, and his impatience with red tape, which led to the appointment of the Committee on Department Methods. Their inquisition seems to be directed along very promising lines. A few sample interrogatories will illustrate:

"(2.) What is the division of responsibility between the Secretary, the Assistant Secretaries, and the chiefs of bureaus and divisions?"

"(8.) Is any work done by any other Department in any field covered by your Department? If so, is there any systematic form of coöperation?"

"(18.) What procedure and policy are followed in making up departmental estimates for appropriations? Is any committee concerned with this work?"

And under the general heading of Correspondence and Files is this home thrust: "(19.) What proportion of answers is mailed the same day the letter is received?"

It may readily be imagined how the somnolent departmental dovecotes are being fluttered by this unfeeling intrusion. The dust was so picturesque, and the mantle of mutual charity for each other's lagging gait had become so all but universal! It even appears that the investigating committee suspects that in certain musty quarters of Washington there is an odor of hateful academicism, for one query desires light on there being "any persons in your Department engaged in preparing decisions for ministerial approval who are without expert and practical knowledge of actual conditions. . . . as distinguished from a knowledge of the record alone."

Enthusiasts for Government control of industry may profitably turn aside a moment to consider that this inquiry is virtually an attempt to inject into Government business administration the virtues of private or corporate management. We can but hope that the investigation may secure for the executive departments the desiderata they now often lack—definitely located responsibility, coördination of departmental work, due economy, avoidance of unnecessary duplication of function, and such reasonable speed as is consistent with honesty in public business.

THE PUBLIC VIEW OF MORMONISM.

Not in a long time, certainly, has the Mormon Church had so prominent a place in the news of the day as at present. Not only are there unmistakable signs of a strained situation in Utah itself; over the Western States in general—the East seems less interested—the feeling is apparent that things are not as they should be and that something ought to be done.

In a sense, we are now passing through a sort of secondary stage in the agitation over Mormonism. The early testimony in the Smoot proceedings made familiar to every one a mass of highly damaging facts about the Church and its leading spirits. In a word, it taught the country what the Church stood for and to what its potential authority extended. The effort of those fighting Mormonism is now to show in detail the ways in which this power is being exercised at present in every-day affairs. Until the country in general is completely convinced that the Mormon hierarchy not only can but does habitually exercise despotic control over the Church membership, to the prejudice of others' rights and in violation of its own agreements, it is idle to talk as yet of the third stage, when we should seriously consider applying a remedy by force from without. If the anti-Mormons can do no more than show that the Latter-day Saints have a fantastic and terrifying ritual, are led in an extremely close communion by a coterie of rich old men with several wives apiece, and usually let themselves be told how to vote, the good people over the rest of the country will be properly disgusted, but they will hardly be roused to an embattled mood.

It is in this light that the current allegations of Mormon machinations have their special interest. Last week, for instance, registration for chances in the Uintah Reservation lands began at Provo, Price, and Vernal. Salt Lake, the largest city in the State, was not included. Here is seen a Mormon plot, for, in Salt Lake City, Gentiles are in the majority, and by removing the places of registration to Mormon centres the chances of the non-Mormons in the scramble would be diminished. Out of the Uintah opening another scandal was scented in the recent letter from one of the Mormon "stake" presidencies, referring to "Land Office connections." Commissioner Richards at Washington promptly wrote to ask what was meant by the expression. The answer, sent a fortnight ago, explains that the Church officials merely meant that they were "in touch with Land Office attorneys and civil engineers operating in the legitimate exercise of their professions and under the rules and regulations governing opening of the reserve." The stake presidency protests that it used the phrase "without noting that it was susceptible of double construction."

It may be remembered that when President Smith was testifying before the Senate committee, he was asked about the case of a man who, after being long in charge of certain Mormon educational work, left it to become a professor in the State Agricultural College. The implication of the question was that the change was a punishment inflicted by the Church. President Smith's answer was, in substance, that the State Agricultural College was a far more important institution than any which the Church maintained. This statement may be recalled in view of the recent charge that the Mormon leaders are plotting to capture the institution, that several of its professors are now polygamists, and that, if the plans go through, the institution will be made as far as possible an adjunct to the Smoot-Cutler political-religious machine.

But the list of evils alleged is almost endless. We have the case of a Mormon forger arrested in Canada, but protected by the refusal of Utah's Mormon Governor to issue a requisition for him. There is the story of a Gentile saloonkeeper whose license was revoked, and who was visited a few days later by a Mormon, who proposed to rent the place, saying, "You could not get a license, but I can, because I am a member of the Church." We read accounts of the means by which independent salt-makers—Mormons themselves—have been crushed by the power of the Church monopoly. There are even tales of Smith's unfeeling treatment of widows and orphans left by dying Mormons to the charity of the Church. We have thought it worth while to cite these charges as illustrations of the systematic effort now being made to impress on the country

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what Mormonism is in practice as well as theory.

In the midst of this wrangle, Frederick W. Smith, grandson of the original "prophet" Joseph Smith, and head of the "Reorganized" Church (for the head of the Utah body carries on the line only in name), comes out with an address to Mormons urging them to abandon at once polygamy, commercialism, and politics, and return to the faith as it was before corrupted by Brigham Young. An amusing cartoon in the Salt Lake *Tribune* shows Apostle Penrose, editor of the Church organ, the *Deseret News*, exclaiming, "There is no collision of forces in Utah," though behind him President Smith, a strapping Gentile, and a Mormon schismatic, are rolling over and over in a three-cornered rough-and-tumble fight, while the peaceable Reed Smoot, without taking a hand himself, is knocked hither and thither.

Certainly, all the grumble and rumble and roar would be more impressive if it was directed to some more definite end. "What are you going to do about it?" is in this case the question of the well-meaning bystander as well as of the intrenched hierarchy. Even Senator Kearns, in his impressive valedictory speech on conditions in his State, got no nearer a concrete suggestion than to say: "It is the duty of this great body . . . to serve notice on this Church monarch and his apostles that they must live within the law, that the nation is supreme, etc." But how serve notice? And if they do not obey the notice, what next? Elect State officers who will vigorously root out polygamy and political conspiracies? It was tried last fall, but the anti-Mormon ticket polled only 8,000 votes out of 100,000 or so. The only concrete thing the Senate can do without going out of its way is to unseat Reed Smoot, but the committee seems as far from a report on his case as ever, and the apostle has already rounded out more than a third of his term unmolested.

JEROME'S TRUE VALUE.

We doubt not that most of Mr. Jerome's admirers and supporters could, as we at least do, wish him in some respects other than he is. His address at Chautauqua on Saturday brought out again some of those qualities in him which make the judicious grieve. He said some excessively foolish things. His notions of political economy seem singularly vague. His dismissal of the Philippine question in a contemptuous phrase or two was unworthy of a serious-minded man. But we have to take Mr. Jerome for all in all. We have to see what is essential and central in him, and what falls away as merely exterior and unimportant. Southey said that, as he grew older, he got over his early "mania for man-mending." We must take men as God made them—thanking Him devoutly when a public man arises who, with whatever faults of manner or speech, has the root of the matter in him and deals direct and mighty blows at the giant evils of his day and generation.

Now that is true of Mr. Jerome. The people of this city and of this country are turning their eyes to him, not because they think his taste perfect, or believe that all he says is pure wisdom, but because they know him to be honest and terribly in earnest, because they perceive that he is absolutely fearless, and because they are more and more coming to see that he is striking his hand upon the very spot where the American body politic is most ailing. His description of the way in which bosses have cunningly come between the people and their nominal representatives, answers to the thoughts of many hearts. We have all felt this shame. In a confused but angry way, we have protested against the idea that our boss-made public servants fairly represent the American people. We look about and see our friends and neighbors, honest and self-respecting, as a rule, and desirous of purity and efficiency in government, yet somehow led by the nose into conniving at the worst plans of party machines and their unscrupulous leaders. Community after community, with State after State, feels itself disgraced by the men who are ostensibly the elect of the people, yet the reason for the humiliation, like its remedy, is but dimly perceived. Mr. Jerome, however, comes forward to make all clear. He shows into exactly what trap we have fallen. It is the combination of party tyranny (really the dictation of one man or a small group of men) with graft that is responsible for the disrepute into which our public life has fallen.

And, in elaborating this truth, Mr. Jerome displays a prophet-like directness. No beating about the bush; just a plain, "Thou art the man." It is as refreshing as it is unprecedented to have a man in the public eye make his teachings so trenchantly personal, naming his bad examples with the utmost freedom. Such explicit application of his principles as he made by name on Saturday—Depew, Odell, Platt, Hill, each being treated with a familiarity which must have seemed to them horrifying—is as admirable as it is needed. "I love Moll Cobb for her impudence," said Dr. Johnson; and we think that Americans are prepared to give their hearts to a man who will lay an irreverent hand upon our whited sepulchres. We have had a dearth of this plain-speaking and making guilt personal. The ordinary way has been to construct some roundabout phrase, after the manner of Joseph Surface, and say "the man who," etc., etc. This is the great vice of President Roosevelt's exhortations. But Mr. Jerome has gone about the business with a terrifying way of pointing his finger straight at the sinner. "When I say a Senator is unfit, I mean Depew. When I speak of a self-seeking boss, I mean Odell." No wonder the people hear him gladly.

All that we can reasonably ask of a public man is that he sense the great issue before the country, and be prepared to lead the people aright upon it. The rest is immaterial. Mr. Jerome's occasional slangy habit of speech, the flippant tone which he sometimes adopts, his yielding now and then to the temptation to deliver himself upon subjects of which he has small knowledge, his indiscretions, his mistakes—all these things are of no great consequence. It is enough that he sees clear and thinks and talks straight in the really vital matter. Mr. Jerome's true importance and real value lie in his firm grasp of the fundamental evil of our politics. He has studied the matter long and at first hand. Of the malign figure of the boss, selling nominations with one hand, selling legislation with the other, he has had a near view; and he tells us in the most explicit language we have had from any public man, that our peril and our corruption reside in the arrogance of the party boss and the subserviency of the voters. Throwing his own glove full in the face of the bosses of both parties, Mr. Jerome has made himself the natural leader of all who would see their corrupt and debasing power broken forever.

The rise of such men as District Attorney Jerome and Governor Folk renews one's faith in the ability of democracy to heal its own diseases. When the sickness is most desperate, the physician appears. The first thing we need is a clear diagnosis of the malady. This Mr. Jerome has given us with unexampled precision. The cure which he proposes is heroic—like the plucking out of an eye or the cutting off of hand or foot—but there are abundant signs that the people are ready for it. We can interpret the acclaim with which the whole country has received Mr. Jerome's declaration of independence of the bosses, and of war upon them till they abdicate or expire, in but one way: a political revolution is impending, and woe be to boss or grafter who gets in its way.

HOW THE MAYOR STANDS.

Some of our daily contemporaries seem very despairing of District Attorney Jerome's chances of reëlection if he runs independently. One of them deprecates his assaults on the Republican machine, and thus writes itself down as unable to comprehend the real sources of his strength. This, we think, is not the time for faint-hearted studying of election figures, or for regret that the Tammany vote is so large as it is. It is the moment to give thanks that a brave

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man has at one stroke vitalized a campaign which bade fair to be lifeless and even confusing, and has set before the community once more, and in vigorous fashion, the ideals towards which honest citizens have been working these twenty-five years. New York has shown again and again that it has citizens who value courage, independence, and honesty in a civic official. To sit down now and wail over the likelihood that great numbers cannot be shaken in their fealty to national party, is entirely too much like offering the counsel of pessimism, if not despair.

In sounding a call to arms against the bosses, Mr. Jerome has not only brought his own candidacy to the front, but has set people to reviewing the whole Mayoralty situation in the light of the coming election. When Tammany Hall puts a personally honest man like Mayor McClellan in office, it does so for two reasons: first, to deceive voters into believing that it has undergone a moral regeneration, and is therefore entitled to the votes of those who would "reform the party from within"; and, second, to confuse the real issue presented by its mere existence as an organized political body with no higher inspiration than the appetite for public plunder. Mayor McClellan has served these more than dubious ends well—intentionally or unintentionally—with the result that the public mind is seriously perplexed. People have naturally been drawn to the personally attractive gentleman in the City Hall, and have, also naturally, compared his administration far more with Van Wyck's than with Mr. Low's. From that point of view they think the present Administration a great advance. Some innocent voters, too, really think this is the grade of Tammany government we may expect for the indefinite future. Ridiculous as this is, we are, fortunately enough, not facing another "red-light" campaign, and we have been happily spared many of the iniquities of the Van Wyck debauching of our city government.

But when this is said on behalf of Mayor McClellan, there remains little if anything else to be adduced in his favor, while there are many harsh judgments which the impartial student of affairs must pass upon the Administration that he and Mr. Murphy are jointly conducting. First of all, the Mayor himself knows in his heart that he has been false to the city's best interests in retaining in office John T. Oakley, the Gas Commissioner, who sold out to the Gas Trust behind Mr. McClellan's back. He did, it is true, force out a wholly incompetent Tenement House Commissioner, but this only brought out in more glaring way his retention of Oakley and of the insufferable Park Commissioner, Pallas. It in no way relieves him from the responsibility of having foisted upon the city a Deputy Police Commissioner of the character of Thomas F. McAvoy, or a Dock Commissioner like Featherson, to say nothing of the Health Commissioner, who makes scarcely a pretence of excluding politics from his enormously important department. Under these men and their fellows there has been a steady deterioration of the city's service. Mr. McClellan knows it; he has been having some difficult times lately with certain heads of departments, and he has readily understood the significance of the bumps he has received in riding over our worn-out pavements.

None the less, the Mayor has been loyal to his political pals. He has not gone back on "the gang," as did Mayor Weaver in Philadelphia. True, the Durham machine demanded intolerable things, but essentially it is not different from Tammany, and the plaudits of all his friends could not conceal the plain fact that Mayor McClellan has acted up to his natural instincts and served the city faithfully *only so far as compatible* with his staying on good terms with his overlord, the ex-barkeeper, Murphy. When the limit of Mr. Murphy's or the Hall's indulgence has been reached, the city may go hang as far as the Mayor is concerned. Meanwhile he salves his conscience with the Jesuitical doctrine that the end—*i. e.*, the furtherance of his own ambitions—justifies the means, and that, in Rooseveltian language, one must compromise to "accomplish things." In other words, the Mayor has fawned upon his political maker, and is more content to be half a man and Murphy's loyal tool than the city's leader. Who has heard the son of George B. McClellan speak out in these last eighteen months against the corrupt corporations, the real enemies of the city, who are steadily driving it towards municipal management of public utilities, or worse, by reason of their criminal alliance with Tammany Hall and the rotten Republican machine? When has the Mayor essayed the moral leadership of this community—now in Mr. Jerome's hands—as his birth and antecedents gave the public a right to expect of him? Has any one seen in Mr. McClellan an iota of that readiness to fling away his political future by daring to do the right which marks the Jeromes, the Folks, the Clevelands, as the highest type of the American public servant?

Mr. McClellan's Administration is at bottom one of compromise and deceit, intended to gloss over the evils of governing a city by a boss, in order that the independent voters may turn their eyes away from the true standards erected by men like Jerome and Cutting and the honest workers of the Citizens' Union. The one system of government has failed in every city in America, and has made American municipal government a byword throughout the world—like Turkish mismanagement and Russian corruption; the other offers the only hope of conducting our municipal business honestly. Let Mr. McClellan be reëlected, and the downward movement of the new city government will be accelerated. The issue this fall, as in former years, is the people against the criminal alliance of both parties for the purpose of plundering the city. Through Mr. Cutting the Citizens' Union has swung into line behind Mr. Jerome, as everybody knew it would. And it may yet appear that there is a higher duty which Mr. Jerome cannot escape, for the very reason that he himself has so daringly nailed the flag of good government to the mast.

HYBRID DEMOCRACIES.

Democracies which attempt a colonial policy suffer under unusual disadvantages. They cannot very easily justify at the same time their own existence and their usual method of governing dependencies. Monarchies have less trouble in this respect. Where the Crown enjoys substantial power of government, it is easy to extend the same logical conception to the rule of newly acquired territory. Bismarck's dictum that "might must rule before right can" is not ousted of its jurisdiction by a sea trip. To be sure, the absolutist principle has not been proved by historical experience to be reliable. Power without corresponding terrestrial responsibility has on the whole degenerated into neglect and abuse of the governed. But still the doctrine of divine right, or its modern counterpart, suffers no logical dislocation on purely geographical grounds. It is true that the colonies which are dominated under this theory of government have shown little inherent vitality. But, on the other hand, the difficulties they have offered to the home governments have been mainly those of subjugating and policing the "lesser breeds" of alien peoples, not of devising an acceptable measure of self-government for them.

When democracies essay the imperial task, however, the logical dilemma is a vexing one. The opportunist dodge is the only way out of the difficulty. The theory of absolute control is propounded as necessary at the outset. Ultimate self-government, with hazy reservations as to its introduction, extension, and full realization, is dangled as a sedative before the electorate of the seduced democracy and as a quietist incentive before the people of the subject colony. Between the two extremes there is room for a vast assortment of hybrid democracies. There is also the spectacular device of selling the colony an occasional gold brick. This takes the form of a triumphal tour of "pro-consuls," like Lord Milner or "Big Bill" Taft. The duped subjects of a distant sway are thus kept in a lively hope of better

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things to come, and the persistent note of discontent is hushed for the moment by the tom-toms of personal welcome. The steady undertone of complaint is stilled, however, only for the time being. The "pro-consuls'" lot is to be misunderstood. As Mr. Kipling tells us,

"Doubted are they and defamed
By the tongues their act set free."

One reason seems to be that the distant subjects of the Empire are wont to regard their freedom as illusory. Take our friends the Porto Ricans, whom we rescued from the tyranny of Spain, for instance. Here the ungrateful fellows are complaining that the executive government named from Washington is as much a tyranny as the Spanish Crown, and that their elective Legislature is very much of a farce. The latest dispatches from Manila bring much the same story. The provincial governors have memorialized Congress, through Gov. Wright, for a reduction of the tariff. They make serious complaints against the constabulary. They desire reform in municipal governments. And, to crown all, the presidente of the Municipal Board of Manila avows in the pro-consular presence that, since Secretary Taft's departure, "the Filipinos as a whole have been dissatisfied, considering themselves insufficiently represented in the government."

A curious parallel presents itself in Great Britain's attempt to give the Transvaal self-government with one hand and to take it back with the other. The debate in the House of Commons on July 27 brought out the curious situation. The "empire-builders" had, by the treaty of Vereeniging, promised that, at the earliest possible moment, the military government should be succeeded by civil government. When the question arose what should be the character of the civil government, the Foreign Office allowed the makeshift of a representative assembly to be elected by the English and the Boers, but superimposed an executive nominated by the Crown. Besides this, the legislative competence of the representative assembly was limited and hampered. The most important powers were removed from its grasp. The salaries and supplies of the executive could not be touched by it, and many of its enactments, even within its restricted area of power, were subject to review and veto by the Crown. A somewhat similar system once existed in Canada. Lord Durham said of it, in his celebrated Report: "It is difficult to understand how any English statesman could have imagined that representation and irresponsible government could be successfully combined." The farcical character of the hybrid self-government of the Transvaal could not be better brought out than by the defence which the Colonial Secretary, Mr. Alfred Lyttelton, attempted. In essence, it was this: that the proposed plan of government was so bad that Boers and English would sink their racial prejudices in a common effort to do away with it. The right honorable gentleman said "he would give the reasons why he thought that the granting of the Constitution in its present form would tend to the obliteration of racial spirit. They had already got, in the agitation for responsible government, Dutchmen acting with Englishmen. [Hear, hear!] If they gained responsible government, the Dutchmen would draw themselves up in a phalanx on the one side and the Englishmen on the other."

This is substantially the justification so often offered for subjecting dependent people to a yoke we admit we could not ourselves endure. It will work out the peaceable fruits of political experience to treat these unschooled peoples to an arbitrary and irresponsible control which matured democracies like ourselves have found intolerable. This complacent and comforting doctrine, however, runs in the teeth of two very unpleasant facts. Subject peoples unrepresented in a governing democracy are very likely to be exploited at the hands of a conscienceless bureaucracy of irresponsible and distant administrators. Either restive discontent or complete atrophy of the national spirit of the colony is bound to ensue. Whatever enlargement they obtain in their rights of self-government is far more likely to come from the trouble they threaten to give the governing country than from a paternally judicious, though gradual, enlargement of their powers of self-direction. The other fact that must be weighed is the reflex action upon the spirit and structure of the democracy at home of exercising even a temporary tyranny abroad. The infection of militarism, despotism, and absolutism is not the least danger to a democracy which essays a rôle alien to its inner life. As we have ourselves experienced, the stifling of the public conscience is attended by a paralysis of the power to resist and to recuperate.

AN ARCHITECTURAL STROLL IN FRANCE.

PARIS, July 26, 1905.

I should advise a person desirous of getting acquainted with the monuments of old France to take as a guide not a dry Baedeker or a Murray, or even one of Hachette's exact guides—very respectable works and full of information—but the books of M. André Hallays. M. Hallays has given himself a mission; he is the champion and protector of the past, and chiefly of the architectural monuments of the past. There has existed since the reign of Louis Philippe an Historical Monuments Commission which has rendered immense service in preserving from ruin the most important vestiges of our national history. A classification of these monuments has been made, much money has been spent for their preservation and also for their restoration. Unfortunately, under the influence of the architects, and especially of Viollet-le-Duc, the work of restoration has often been carried too far; the credits voted by the Commission have often been used more for restoration than for preservation. Architects think it more glorious to repair a column or a door than to cover a roof.

France possesses many rich edifices which are not classed in the official lists—admirable village churches, ruins of old abbeys, municipal buildings, châteaux, private houses. As M. André Hallays justly says:

"They must be saved, first, because they are the witnesses of our history, and also because they give to modern artists the clearest and most healthy lesson; their lines and decorations teach us the true French tradition. The great basilicas and the magnificent palaces which the Historical Monuments Commission has saved, and, alas! restored, have not, for the instruction of our architects, the value of these more humble monuments in which survives, in all its purity, the genius of the builders of old, and which have not been disfigured by the hazardous imagination of restorers."

These views have prevailed already in some provinces, and societies have been formed for the preservation of monuments of this sort. One of these societies has taken for its field the basin of the River Loire; others are in formation for the basins of the Seine, the Rhone, the Garonne. The first acquisition of the Society of the Loire has been the old Abbey of Asnières, situated in the midst of a forest between Doué-la-Fontaine and Montreuil-Bellay. This abbey was founded at the beginning of the twelfth century by a colony of Benedictine monks. Its history is the same as that of nearly all the great French monasteries. The monks begin by being settlers and farmers; they raise cattle, they build houses. The religious wars of the sixteenth century end this period; in the seventeenth century, there are only six Benedictines left; in the eighteenth century, the Jesuits take possession of the nearly abandoned monastery; during the Revolution, the domain is confiscated and sold, the old constructions are demolished, the abbey is turned into a farm. The cloisters have disappeared; there are only a few remains of the chapter room. The transept and the choir of the church still remain, and are, says M. André Hallays, "one of the most admirable monuments of Anjou." The vaults, columns, and ornaments reveal the beginning of the Plantagenet style, peculiar to the province of Anjou, and forming a transition from the Roman to the Gothic manner. This Plantagenet style has no longer the severe majesty of the Roman basilica; it has not yet the triumphant boldness of the Gothic cathedral. The ogive appears here for the first time, and the tracery of the vault is transformed. The builders of the Isle de France will presently invent the purely ogival style, and realize those immense vaults which are admired in the cathedrals. But the *arc ogif* was born in Anjou, and the Abbey of Asnières is its birthplace.

In his promenades M. André Hallays (he has given his volume the too modest title, 'En flânant—à travers la France') visited the church of Cunault, which is near Saumur, on the left bank of the Loire. This church is classed among the "historical monuments"; it is of Roman construction, finished in the Plantagenet style. It was well restored under the Second Empire, by M. Joly-Leterme.

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Montreuil-Bellay was visited by M. Hallays not only on account of its old château, which he describes in detail, and the decorative pictures which still exist in its chapel, but also on account of certain recollections of the past. The place was for a time a retreat for Madame de Longueville, who played such an important part in the time of the Fronde. She had seen her army beaten by the royal troops; the château of Montreuil, which belonged to her husband, was the last stage of her adventurous career. Cardinal de Retz has drawn a brilliant and true portrait of her in his Memoirs; and, in our time, Cousin has written a volume on this heroine of the Fronde. She was very handsome, and, says Retz, "she would have had few defects if her *galanterie* had not given her many. As her passion obliged her to put politics only in the second place in her conduct, from the heroine of such a great party she became its adventuress. Grace reëstablished what the world could no longer give her." Was it at Montreuil that she was touched by grace? She left it to go to Moulins, then to the Carmelites, and in the end to Port Royal.

Montreuil was inhabited by the person who suggested to Balzac the idea of writing 'Eugénie Grandet.' Balzac had known at Saumur the Niveleau who became the Grandet of his novel. It is said that Balzac asked for the hand of Niveleau's daughter, that he met with a refusal, and took his revenge on the wealthy miser in his novel; but there is no proof of this allegation. Jean Niveleau was before the Revolution a rag-merchant at Saumur; he lent money at high rates, and bought national properties with assignats. His fortune became very large; he bought the château of Montreuil-Bellay in 1822, and possessed several other domains around Saumur. His avarice was famous; he did not refuse the few sous which the visitors to the château offered him. He had a very handsome daughter, born in 1809, who married in 1830 Baron Millin de Grandmaison, uncle of the present proprietor of Montreuil.

Balzac made numerous visits to Saumur; he was in relations with the sub-prefect, and with a small banker who figures in his novel under the name of "Des Grassins." He was fond of talking in his travels with the people he met in the diligence, and liked much this mode of acquiring information. Three things seem certain to M. Hallays, (1) that Père Grandet was painted from life; (2) that it was in a chance conversation that this type of a miser was revealed to Balzac; (3) that he studied on the spot the surroundings and the heroes of his book.

From the valley of the Loire, M. Hallays leads us to the valley of one of its tributaries, the Loir. This was the land of Ronsard, the greatest poet of the Pleiad.

"Loir, dont le cours heureux distille
Au sein d'un pays si fertile,
Fais bruire mon renom
D'un grand son en tes rives
Qui se doivent voir vives
Par l'honneur de mon nom.

. . . . . .

Si quelque pèlerin arrive
Auprès de ta parlante rive,
Dy lui à haute vois
Que ma muse première
Apporta la lumière
De Grèce en Vendomois;
Dy lui ma race et mes ayeux
Et le sçavoir que j'eu des cieux."

Vendôme and its château are the principal features of this land of Ronsard. The poet has his statue in front of the museum; in the museum itself, there is a plaster copy of a marble bust which was once placed on his tomb. The bust was made when he was old, and little recalls the fine profile which is found in the oldest editions of the works of the poet. Ronsard had a house in Vendôme opposite the hôtel of the Du Bellays. This still exists, but Ronsard's house has disappeared. Vendôme is rich in monuments and memories.

"Of the admirable Abbey of the Trinity," says M. Hallays, "Vendôme has kept the wonderful spire of the twelfth century, the most impressive, perhaps, that exists in France; the proportions of this pile are grand. Vendôme has preserved also its fine church, which is a sort of meeting of all styles, from the Roman to the ornamented pseudo-Gothic, and in which all are mingled in a marvellous whole."

The College of Vendôme, constructed by César, Duke of Vendôme, between 1623 and 1639, was first given to the Oratorians. Louis XIV. made of it a royal military school. The Revolution preserved it as a school, and it became afterwards a "Collège Royal"; it is now a lyceum. The history of this house is a résumé in stone of the vicissitudes of education in France during three centuries. The building, which is in the Louis XIII. style, in brick and stone, is very splendid and noble. Near Vendôme are the remains of a castle of the fifteenth century, with five pointed towers. Its name is Bonnaventure. Antoine de Bourbon, King of Navarre and Duke of Vendôme, resided there with gay companions, one of whom composed a song which is still popular: "La Bonnaventure au gué."

M. André Hallays describes the meanders of the Loir past Lavardin and Montoire; the priory of Saint-Gilles, which was the house of Ronsard. The chapel of the old priory still exists, and dates from the tenth century; it is built in the shape of a Latin cross, and its vaults show remains of ancient frescoes. Did Ronsard ever take holy orders, or did he not? The question has never been thoroughly settled. The château of the Poissonnière belonged to the Ronsard family; his father and mother were buried in it, and Ronsard himself was baptized in it. He was buried in the priory of Saint-Côme, where ends the pilgrimage of André Hallays in the charming valley of the Loir.

Correspondence.

ENGINEERS IN THE NAVY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of the 27th instant, under the caption of "Engineering Conditions in the Navy," you say: "A desire on the part of the Engineers for rank and command was largely responsible for the change"—which, as the word "command" is used in the Service, is, to say the least, misleading.

The Engineers did not ask for more rank than they held, but asked that it be the real thing and not the pretence that "assimilated" rank always was. They never asked for command outside their own department. When they had all they had asked for well within reach, the "gold brick" of the Personnel bill was offered them; they swallowed it with considerable personal gratification to many, and very much to the disadvantage of the Naval Service. The *Bennington* disaster is the legitimate fruit of the system, and we shall be fortunate not to have more of the same kind. It matters little what you call the senior engineer of a ship, so long as he is a man of ability and experience; but, to secure a man of that type, he must have commensurate pay and position.

The first grave error was made in 1882, when the grade of Cadet Engineer was abolished, and with it the special engineering training at the Naval Academy. The sooner special training for engineering duties is put upon a firm basis, the better it will be for our navy. C. H. M.

July 31, 1905.

Notes.

'Sporting Sketches,' by Edwyn Sandys, illustrated by the author, and 'Brittany,' in color, by Mortimer and Dorothy Menpes, are to be published by Macmillan Co.

Brentano's will reissue in a handsome manner Oscar Wilde's 'Intentions,' with an introduction by Percival Pollard.

L. C. Page & Co., Boston, have in preparation 'Among French Inns,' by Charles Gibson.

Dr. Hubert Jansen of Berlin recently made a brief report on the status of the great international Technological Lexicon which has been undertaken by the German National Association of Engineers. It is to be published in three languages, German, English, and French, and especially aims to serve, among other objects, the purposes of translation. Begun in 1901, there have now been worked through nearly 3,000,000 word-slips, and several hundred thousand yet await editorial examination. More than 2,000 firms and individuals throughout the three countries interested and their colonies are contributing material. Printing is soon to be begun.

The annual conference of the editors of the 'Thesaurus Linguæ Latinæ' was lately held in Munich, with the Bavarian Cultus Minister, Dr. von Hartel, in the chair. The general editor, Professor Vollmar, of Munich, resigned his position, being no longer able to devote his entire time to the enterprise, but he will coöperate as assistant editor. The Governments of Prussia, Bavaria, Wirtemberg, Baden, and Hamburg, as also the scientific academies of Vienna, Göttingen, and Berlin, have promised to continue their financial aid. At the above meeting, it was reported that the first volume, A to Amyzon, is now completed and bound.

We welcome the prompt appearance of the first Supplement to the Abridged Edition of 'Poole's Index to Periodical Literature' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), under the editorial direction of William I. Fletcher and Mary Poole as hitherto. The mystic number of select periodicals (37) also remains constant, but a gap through discontinuance must be made good in another Supplement or let stand. The present vol-

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ume is for the five years 1900-04, and it will be resorted to, as the editors rightly affirm, far more than the portion of the larger work discarded in abridgment. Hence a gain in ease of handling and in cost, in comparison.

The text with which Mr. Theodore Sutro accompanies the reproduction of the late Edward Moran's thirteen marine paintings representing 'Thirteen Chapters of American History' (The Baker-Taylor Co.), is rather injudicious in tone. Mr. Moran was an industrious and respectable painter, but he was not "a genius" nor "the first marine painter" of this country, and the pictures here reproduced are far from "unequalled" as works of art. They are illustrations pure and simple, more at home between the covers of a book than in their original material and scale on the walls of a gallery. As illustrations, they have decided merits, and probably as much value as to truth and accuracy as imaginative illustrations of past events can ever have, but their purely artistic qualities are of a rather modest order. That their production was inspired by patriotism is probable; that they are painstaking, sincere, and conscientious works, there is no doubt. They will be liked for their subjects by thousands of people who are not connoisseurs of art, and with such success the friends and admirers of the artist may well be content.

In his latest book, entitled 'The Complete Kano Jiu-jitsu' (Putnams), Mr. Irving Hancock defends the theory of the Japanese weaponless art of personal defence and physical culture from criticism, and from misapprehensions arising from supposed "victories" of American champions of wrestling over Japanese exponents of their art. His portly octavo is illustrated on almost every one of its half-thousand pages. These clear half-tone pictures, reinforced by descriptive and explanatory text, present the whole subject with absolute fairness. Mr. Hancock calls his scheme "official," and even ascribes it to the Government, besides giving it also the briefer term in Chino-Japanese, newly but properly coined, "jiu-do," and inventing for it, out of whole cloth, the ridiculous attribution of "twenty-five hundred years of history." He has had the coöperation of his co-worker, Mr. Hagashi, and has added, besides prefaces, chapters on the serious and fatal blows, with diagrams showing the vital points of the flesh, muscles, and bones aimed at in attack and reviving. Very valuable is the explanation, with pictures, of Kuatsu, or "The Japanese Science of the Restoration (Resuscitation) of Life," which the reviewer has often seen made use of in Japan with happy effects.

After six years, Dr. J. E. Spingarn's 'History of Literary Criticism in the Renaissance,' which originally appeared in the Columbia University Studies in Literature, has had the honor of being translated into the language of the country on whose influence upon modern classicism most stress was laid ('La Critica Letteraria nel Rinascimento,' Bari: G. Laterza & Figli). It has been somewhat revised and enlarged for the translator, Dr. Antonio Fusco, and Prof. B. Croce supplies a brief friendly preface, in which he characterizes the work as substantially a history of *Poetica*, with but incidental references to Literary Criticism. This, in fact, came truly into being only with the Romantic revolution, as will be shown for Italy in a forthcoming work by G. A. Borgese. Professor Croce also delicately again breaks a lance with Professor Saintsbury, apropos of this scholar's rejoinder to his criticism in the third volume of his 'History of Criticism.'

A belated contribution to the controversy over Dr. Karl Bücher's 'Der Deutsche Buchhandel und die Wissenschaft' comes to hand in a pamphlet bearing the title 'Das Buch im Strom des Verkehrs,' by Dr. W. Koehler-Gera. The author characterizes it as "a study in political economy," and treats in it of such topics as the Economic Importance of Literary Production, the Economic Basis of Literary Culture, Analysis of Literary-Economic Value, etc. A chapter on the Libraries and the Book Industry deals largely with the beginnings of the book trade in Alexandria and the Roman Empire; the author touches also on the possible service of libraries as literary bureaus of information, especially through book exhibitions. The fifth chapter, entitled "Das Reichsbarsortiment," contains a practical proposal to solve the difficulties that beset the book trade. The author, who is himself a publisher, proposes a further development of the cash-jobbing houses (*Barsortimente*), the one branch of the trade of which the soundness had not been attacked during the controversy; he proposes, in a word, the establishment of a large central jobbing-house on a coöperative basis as an agency of the organized trade, with branches in various literary centres. Dr. Koehler is confident that organized effort of this kind will go farther towards solving the book-trade problem than any coercive measures. These, he says, "are of doubtful value in the economic life, and, as disturbing elements, often work against productivity."

Steady progress is being made in the solution of the problem of Japanese origins, not only on the anthropological, but on the linguistic side. When, in 1887, Prof. Basil Hall Chamberlain published, in the Memoirs of the Literature College of the Imperial University of Japan, his great work on 'The Language, Mythology, and Geographical Nomenclature of Japan, viewed in the Light of Aino Studies,' and the Rev. John Batchelor his 'Ainu Grammar,' the proofs of the ancient Ainu occupation of the Japanese archipelago were made clear. Yet, besides at least fifteen points of difference between the Ainu and Japanese languages, there were several score of known place-names which could not then be accounted of Ainu origin. Professor Chamberlain, with some others who preceded him, suggested a pre-Ainu aboriginal race, and in the publications of the Smithsonian Institute are some "astonishing remarks" to this effect by persons who were excursionists rather than scientific men. These imagined a previous race of dwarfs, and asserted that the Koropoku-Guru, or the pit-dwellers of North Japan, were a separate race antedating the Ainu. In a valuable pamphlet, just issued by Mr. Batchelor, he shows that the Ainu people in Saghalien and the Kurile Islands, as well as Yezo, make and use pit dwellings in winter, using huts in summer, and that the Koropoku-Guru (a term meaning pit-dwellers) were Ainu and nothing more. Independently, a work in Japanese, by R. Torii, on the Ainu of the Kuriles, fully bears out the thesis of Mr. Batchelor, and overthrows the official report of the Washington excursionist. The skeletons of no "dwarfs" have yet been found. As regards the place-names once defying analysis or disputed, Mr. Batchelor, after seventeen years of further study, has recovered from the Ainu the real root-meanings of the whole 210, once unknown, and has added 90 others. These, with his descriptive notes, he gives in both the ordinary Japanese and the modern Ainu form, making a list of great value. Mr. Batchelor has also issued in a new edition of his 'Grammar of the Ainu Language' (Yokohama: Kelly & Walsh) some notable fresh results of his studies. Whether he has demonstrated that Ainu is an Aryan language must be decided by experts, but, briefly stated, the Ainu are a white race, physiologically related to the cave-dwellers of Europe, while linguistically akin at least to the Aryans.

The *Korea Review* for May contains an article, perhaps of plenary inspiration, on "Korea and Japan," showing that the Japanese, instead of removing the age-old inheritance of hatred in the Korean mind on account of the twelfth-century raids, and especially the brutality and ruthless invasion of the sixteenth century, have of late increased it. Very naturally this has stirred up a great deal of discussion among the Japanese newspapers. Estimating at small value the good will of the Korean people, the Japanese have not only shot instantly, without trial, Koreans found tampering with the railway, but, in the matter of sequestrating land and labor, have not been generous in keeping promises or in doing what the admiring world believes they are doing. The May article is reinforced by a tremendous indictment (with specific allegations) of the Japanese in the June number of the *Review*. An irreducible residuum in the controversy is the unquestioned fact that Japanese of a very undesirable class are pouring into Korea, whom the Mikado's officers find it hard to control, while the reinforcement of Japan's enormous army in Mantchuria is depleting the supply of labor in Japan itself. The Japanese have also possession of the post-offices, supplanting the superintendence and assistance of the French, bringing many new clerks and operators from Japan. The telegraph and telephone services are now also under Japanese direction. There is an interesting account of the celebration of the opening of the Seul-Fusan Railway on the 25th of May, which excelled in splendor and impressiveness anything ever known in the Empire. This, for the student of Korean matters, is supplemented by special numbers of Japanese magazines liberally illustrated. The American system is used throughout on the Korean railways, and 120-ton Baldwin engines make a nine-hour schedule between the eastern port and the capital in the northwest. The city of Seul had a good spring house-cleaning, and the red sand characteristic of Imperial occasions was sprinkled over all the streets. Under the facile hands of Japanese decorators, many striking designs were noticeable. A thousand guests partook of the banquet which the Imperial princes of two countries attended. The trip from London to Tokio will, in the coming days of peace, require but a few hours of sea travel. An enormous appreciation of land values has already been felt all along the lines. The first number of the

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Seul *Press*, a weekly paper in English, appeared on June 3.

The higher education of women in England will be promoted by means of a memorial to the late Miss Frances Power Cobbe. Funds have been subscribed for an annual prize to be given to all students and members under six years' standing in certain colleges for women, including those at Oxford and Cambridge. These prizes will probably be for the best essay on any subject, ethical, psychological, or philosophical, bearing on the evidence of natural religion. The committee of ladies in charge of this scheme believe that such a prize, open to such candidates, would "be an appropriate means of continuing the work as well as perpetuating the memory of a representative woman distinguished for her wise advocacy of the rights of women to equal treatment in higher education as well as in the broad field of civic life."

The problem of the unemployed workingman is discussed in a report of a committee of investigation appointed by the French Chamber of Deputies. The main cause of this enforced idleness, which the Socialists insist is due to the capital system, is attributed to machinery. The introduction of mowers, reapers, etc., has rendered it impossible for the small farmer to make a living, and has driven him to the city. "In Paris, two-thirds of the population is composed of these emigrants." A remedy is suggested by calling attention to the manner in which Russia has successfully created new means of labor by fostering domestic industries. Of these, there are about fifty, such as locksmithing, shoemaking, painting icons, etc.; and by this means from $38,000,000 to $58,000,000 are distributed yearly among the rural population. In 1900 an appropriation of over $50,000 was made to aid these country industries, called *kutsari*. The Minister of Agriculture helps the establishment of factories for apprentices, and of schools, warehouses, and salesrooms, in which scholars may be trained. There is at St. Petersburg a permanent exhibition of *kutsari* products, a species of industrial museum which sends models, drawings, and perfected instruments into the country, and serves also as an intermediary between the rural workers and foreigners. As far as possible, the State reserves to the *kutsari* the manufacture of certain Government work, military harness, etc. The committee introduced a bill providing for an appropriation for the purpose of investigating the general subject, and for a special inquiry into "the kinds of industry that may be carried on in families or in small village factories that will furnish complementary resources to the farm hand."

Following the innovation successfully tried in Berlin, an *Arbeitsamt* has been established for the university students in Munich. The Association (*Studentisches Arbeitsamt*) offers to secure, through capable students and young savants connected with the University, such work as the transcription of manuscripts, preparation of excerpts and digests, investigation of original sources, collection of literary references, preparation of articles, reviews, and the like in the departments of science, literature, and art. A similar bureau of information has been opened in Florence, the "Istituto delle Carte," with a national scope.

The first International Art Congress has been called to meet in Venice September 21 to 27. It is convened at the initiative of the Circolo Artistico of that city, and an international committee has been selected to arrange the programme and the work.

A national Rumanian Exposition will be held next year in commemoration of various historical events. In 1906, writes our Minister, Mr. John B. Jackson, eighteen centuries will have elapsed since Dacia was conquered by the Emperor Trajan, and the Rumanians profess to have issued from a fusion of the conquerors and the conquered. In 1866 the present king began his reign as prince, and next year twenty-five years will have elapsed since Rumania became a kingdom. The Exposition is intended to show the product of Rumanian industries only, whether of inhabitants of the kingdom or of other countries. Foreign exhibits, however, are to be admitted which have to do with agriculture, especially of machinery, and of fruit and vegetables whose introduction into Rumania is considered possible. The Parliament has voted the sum of $320,000 for the organization of the Exposition.

—The August *Scribner's* is, as usual, the "fiction number." There will be some, perhaps, so carried away on the wave of popular enthusiasm for Japan as to count Mr. Millard's paper on the fruits of Japan's victory fiction along with the rest, but a voice of caution and dissent may be useful, none the less. It is Mr. Millard's opinion, shared doubtless by many others, that the channels of information have been very shrewdly managed in Japan's interest for the past few years, until public opinion has become unduly biassed. The course of events proves, he thinks, and well he may, that Japan intended the war with Russia long beforehand, and had very definite ideas as to the way in which it was to be brought about and the time when it was to come. Russia, on the other hand, by her very unreadiness, showed that she had no idea of a war at that time, though it may have been regarded as an inevitable part of her policy for a somewhat indefinite future. Under present conditions, thinks Mr. Millard, it is idle to suppose that Japan will be content with the modest programme put forth as a justification of her course when the war began. She will demand "the legitimate fruits of her victory, in the usual military sense," and Western nations must govern themselves accordingly. Mr. Millard insists that Russia and Japan were on the same level, so far as *rights* were concerned, in the original dispute. It was merely a matter of national interests and ambitions, with no rights involved except the utterly disregarded rights of the inhabitants of the territory in question. He also maintains vigorously that the Russians and the Japanese are far more essentially like one another in inherent character than the "propaganda" has allowed us to believe. It is to be said that there is nothing essentially pro-Russian in Mr. Millard's attitude, since he endorses emphatically the general severe criticism of Russian methods of administration.

—The *Atlantic* yields rather more than its accustomed amount of recognition to the vacation season. "The Lesson of Balzac," however, by Henry James, gives ample opportunity for vigorous intellectual effort to any who are so inclined. This will be remembered as a lecture delivered in Philadelphia and elsewhere during the past eight months. George W. Alger makes a protest against the current "literature of exposure" as being ineffectively severe in manner, and failing to supply the constructive element along with the destructive. It may be admitted that there is much violent screaming in fashion on the subject of social and political abuses, but we are not quite sure that the man who happens to have a keen scent for fire should keep his mouth closed until he be assured of his own competence to put out the fire and repair the damage as well as to sound the alarm. This is the era of the division of labor, and there is a place for the man who can detect danger and sound the alarm, regardless of his ability to do the rest. "Above the Clouds at Metéqui," by Anna Seaton Schmidt, is an unusually interesting bit of description.

—'The Classics and Modern Training,' by Dr. Sidney G. Ashmore (Putnams), is, in its author's words, "a series of addresses suggestive of the value of classical studies to education." Of the five essays which the volume contains, the first two bear more directly upon the present importance of *literæ humaniories* than do the rest. These are "A Plea for the Classics in Our Schools, with Particular Reference to Latin" and "Our Classical Inheritance." The remaining papers are entitled "The Tragedy and Comedy of the Greeks," "Classical Archæology," and the "Olympic Games at Athens in 1896." One is always interested to see how an advocate of classical studies will base his plan for their inclusion in the curriculum of school and college. So much has been written on the subject, and many of the considerations are so obvious, that it is by no means easy to avoid being dull and hackneyed when dealing with such a well-worn theme. Dr. Ashmore, who is writing to convince the public rather than to embroider fine phrases about the beauty of the Greek and Roman masterpieces, seeks to ground his argument upon a truly scientific basis. Hence he enters the realm of physiological psychology to ascertain what light is thrown upon language study in general by the organization of the human mind. Having established, by an appeal to this new oracle, "the supreme importance of language study to early education, he examines in succession the special claims of English, of the other modern languages, and of the classics. Here one of his main points is that inflection gives Latin a disciplinary value which English cannot claim to possess. "The Roman could arrange his thoughts in their exact logical sequence—that is, in the order of priority of importance, without risk of ambiguity, and he could do so because the language he used was highly inflected. English, on the contrary, being now almost wholly deprived of whatever inflections it once had, must depend chiefly upon the arrangement of its words to avoid obscurity of statement, so that a truly logical order in English is seldom to be guaranteed." Having drawn his main arguments from psychology and grammar, Dr. Ashmore concludes by calling as witnesses a number of modern educational experts like Dr. M. P. Jacobi,

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Prof. F. S. Hoffman, and President Hadley. There are two important points to be urged on behalf of classical training which have been unduly neglected in this article, namely, the great service rendered by Latin, when properly taught, in the formation of an English style, and the difficulty which the average mind has in grasping the rudiments of scientific methods before sixteen. But Dr. Ashmore does not pretend that he has covered the whole field in this short address, which has the distinct merit of shunning loose talk and laying stress upon more sensible arguments than are usually employed in the debate between classics and science. The other four essays bear witness to Dr. Ashmore's genuine appreciation of classical literature and archæology, as well as to his sympathy for modern Greece.

—We have a volume of very different scope, though also devoted to the classics, in the 'Companion to Greek Studies,' which Mr. Leonard Whibley has edited for the Syndics of the Cambridge University Press (New York: Macmillan). This is a valuable coöperative work designed to present "such information (apart from that contained in Histories and Grammars) as would be most useful to the student of Greek literature. It differs in scope from other books of the same class, for, besides a survey of Greek life, thought, and art in their different branches, it includes a chapter on the physical conditions of Greece, another containing chronological tables of politics, literature, and art, and a chapter on certain branches of criticism and interpretation. "While each article has been entrusted to a writer who has made a special study of the subject, it has been the aim of the work to give the substance of our knowledge in a concise form." These words taken from Mr. Whibley's preface help to indicate the purpose and scope of what must have been a serious undertaking. It is not possible, however, for an editor to commend his work so completely as the reviewer can do, and we hasten to say that the present book is a *Grundriss* of the utmost worth. While likely to be used for the most part by scholars, it is not beyond the range of any educated person, for it states results with the utmost clearness, and avoids such a citation of evidence as would divert the attention of the unlearned reader. Where sources and authorities are necessary "to establish an argument, to justify an important theory, or to remind the student of the *locus classicus* of the subject," they are quoted freely enough for the purpose, but we have never seen a book in which less space is wasted. To say that Mr. Whibley has had on his staff all the best Greek scholars of Great Britain, might seem in one or two cases to be a slight exaggeration. What can be said with the strictest accuracy is that no editor at Oxford or Cambridge could have hoped to secure a stronger corps of contributors from his own country. The geographical section is written by H. F. Tozer; Literature and Textual Criticism, by Sir Richard Jebb; Architecture, by the late F. C. Penrose; Prehistoric Art and Sculpture, by Dr. Waldstein; War, by Professor Oman; Medicine, by Dr. Clifford Allbutt; Metre, by Dr. Verrell; the History of Scholarship, by Dr. J. E. Sandys; and Constitutions, by Mr. Whibley himself. These names are but a choice selection, for a galaxy of scholarship is represented in the elaborate and highly classified table of contents. Where so many writers are concerned, and where compression has been carried so far, it is difficult to single out particular subjects for comment or criticism, but as a standard of true and luminous statement we may allude to Sir Richard Jebb's section on Epic Poetry, in which the development of the Homeric question from Wolf to Christ is handled with masterly skill in a few paragraphs; and the Drama, in which we are taken from the dithyrambs of Arion to the comedies of Menander in thirteen pages of critical narrative. There is no large subject in Hellenic life, from the origins to the Byzantine period, which is not touched upon in this brief encyclopædia, and few volumes have a stronger claim to their places in the library of the classical scholar.

—Mr. Kosmo Wilkinson's 'Personal Story of the Upper House' (Dutton) is a comprehensive and readable account of the leading nobles who have adorned the British peerage since the thirteenth century. So far as the book has any special motive beyond conveying information in an easy and agreeable manner, it would seem to aim at emphasizing the idea that the House of Lords was at the outset a popular assembly, and still remains in close touch with the life of the realm at large. The recent revival of aristocratic influence, encouraged by Lord Salisbury's policy though not springing from it, is a feature of modern British politics that no observer can overlook. Mr. Wilkinson, on the last page of his book, quotes approvingly this dictum of Lord John Russell, "a statesman whose popular sympathies never permitted him to forget his patrician descent": "When a great question arises which requires a display of more than ordinary knowledge of history, of specially accurate learning, of constitutional wisdom particularly practical and sound, what is wanted can be found nowhere in greater perfection than on the episcopal bench, among the peers of three centuries of nobility, and the recent occupants of the Woolsack." But if there is to be seen here a disposition to lay stress upon the virtues which the House of Lords possesses as a deliberative body, Mr. Wilkinson does not make a plea on behalf of the aristocracy, or allow himself to be blinded by any sense of factitious greatness. Beyond doubt, the House of Lords can show a galaxy of illustrious names and picturesque careers, when these are selected from the crowded annals of five centuries; and although at every period a larger number of its members have performed their legislative duties lightheartedly, or not at all, the Upper Chamber has never lacked in its ranks true leaders of the community. The legal reports given in the *Times*, under the heading, "Probate, Divorce, and Admiralty," often contain evidence of a different character which must be reckoned with in forming a final judgment regarding the value of an hereditary aristocracy. However, we have no intention of entering here upon such an exhaustive subject, and only allude to it because Mr. Wilkinson's sketches of individual peers leave on the mind a somewhat too favorable impression of talent and patriotism. In point of form the book is anecdotal without being anecdotal merely. For each age the leaders of the aristocracy are singled out and depicted in a series of brief biographical notes. The thread which holds the narrative together is slight, but of sufficient strength to prevent the book from being a collection of jottings. We have said that Mr. Wilkinson writes agreeably. He also shows a considerable range of reading.

—'The Courtships of Catherine the Great,' by Mr. Philip W. Sargeant of Trinity College, Oxford (Lippincott), is, the author assures us, not to be considered a book of scandal; and this claim, if so it may be called, is borne out by the character of the contents. The title itself is a somewhat gentle euphemism—one must not look here for a repetition of the highly spiced tales with which the memoirs of the eighteenth century are crowded. Catherine's love affairs, of course, went beyond all ordinary bounds of "indiscretion," and it is not strange that her amours should have been represented by contemporaries as being more vulgar than they actually were. Still, there is always the difference between truth and fiction, and it is useful to have in English a statement on this subject which covers the ground already traversed by Waliszewski and his followers on the Continent. Mr. Sargeant starts out by grouping Frederick of Prussia, Maria Theresa, Catherine the Great, and Voltaire as the outstanding figures of the eighteenth century; "and of them all," he says, "Catherine is the most fascinating character." Concerning this *obiter dictum*, we shall say nothing save that it furnishes the reader with Mr. Sargeant's point of view. Of new information in his book there is virtually none, but the graver dangers into which a writer on Catherine's relations with men might easily fall, are avoided. The fact is that the number of her "favorites" was more restricted than the public imagines, and few of them had any direct effect upon State policy. By far the most important of the ten or twelve suitors whose affairs with the Empress come into the present volume were Gregory Orloff, the chief actor in the plot of 1762, and Prince Patiomkin. Catherine's dealings with Orloff, though extended over a good many years, centre in the deposition and probable assassination of Peter. We think that Mr. Sargeant goes too far when he says: "The accusation against her of ordering her husband's assassination is only put forward by the scandalous, the disreputable, or the utterly prejudiced." As in the case of Darnley and Mary Stuart, there may still be some room for doubt, but the facts point strongly in one direction. "The possibility still remains," continues Mr. Sargeant, "that Peter was slain entirely without her knowledge, but that she condoned the deed when it was done. Certainly, she made no attempt to punish any one." Catherine's action in rewarding the foes and probable murderers of Peter can hardly be got over; and when we consider the importance of the issues at stake, and the character of Catherine's intelligence, it is unlikely that a matter of such moment as Peter's fate should have been left undetermined. The period of Patiomkin's ascendency, which began about 1775, belongs to a less tragic and more prosperous era. Out of the seventeen years during which his connection with Catherine lasted, he was "palace favorite" only during the first two, afterwards controlling, or at least influencing, very

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largely the choice of the *cicisbeo*, while taking the leading rôle in politics himself. According to Mr. Sargeant, the Empress is to be looked upon as "non-moral"; but, despite the credit we must give her for generosity and political good judgment, we think she gets off very lightly at this estimation.

—Some at least of our readers will be familiar with the correspondence which was conducted during the years 1844-1854 between Mr. William Palmer, fellow of Magdalen College, Oxford, and M. Khomiakoff. Allusions to it occur in the autobiography of Palmer's brother, the first Earl of Selborne, and at the time it attracted a good deal of attention in ecclesiastical circles. The attempt which was made at this period to establish intimate relations between the Orthodox and Anglican communions proved a failure, since the Greek Church would not recognize the validity of Anglican orders; but in a certain section of the Anglican Church there may still be seen the disposition to meet those of the Orthodox faith more than half-way. Thus, in 1893, the Eastern Church Association, which had been founded nearly thirty years earlier, was revived after a term of eclipse, and since then this society has put forth at intervals volumes designed to promote the cause which in the last generation was so dear to men like William Palmer and George Williams. Its most recent publication is a short book entitled 'The Orthodox Church in Austria-Hungary,' by Margaret S. Dampier (Rivingtons). Strictly speaking, we have here only the first instalment of a work which doubtless is designed to cover the same ground that was traversed by Archbishop Schaguna in his 'Geschichte der Griechisch-orientalischen Kirche in Oestreich.' The author begins with a brief account of the Rumanian Church in Transylvania before the Union of 1700. This act of adhesion to Rome, although signed by fifty-four arch-priests and over fifteen hundred priests, did not lead to the extinction of the Orthodox faith among the Rumanians of the Hapsburg allegiance, and, after a good deal of friction during the eighteenth century, Joseph II., in 1783, granted that those who declined to recognize the headship of Rome should have their own bishop, with his see at Hermannstadt. As the Rumanians of Transylvania are extremely poor and ignorant, their progress since the days of the philosophical Joseph has not attracted much attention outside the Dual Monarchy. However, they are a remnant of some interest, both ethnically and ecclesiastically. This book is a piece of compilation which draws most from Schaguna, but is also indebted to several other writers on the Siebenbürgen. Though much condensed and somewhat bald, the narrative has the merit of an intelligent abridgment, and if the writer had not connected the battle of the Lechfeld with the name of Otto III., and placed the battle of Mohács in 1516, we should have had no fault to find with her abstract of historical events.

A FRENCH VIEW OF RUSSIA AND TSARISM.

L'Empire Russe et le Tsarisme. Par Victor Bérard. Paris: Armand Colin. 1905.

M. Bérard's contribution to the flood of literature on Russia must be ranked as not only "timely," but also as of high class and valuable—three qualities not often found combined. He dates it "January-May, 1905," which brings it as near the present moment as it well can be. A notable feature is the manner in which, without straining comparisons, he judiciously explains the connection of past and present history as he proceeds. This sort of thing has been done—or attempted—before, it is true, but not felicitously, as a rule. M. Bérard appears to be as free from prejudice as one could expect, and very well informed as to cause and effect. The single point on which he is rather weak is on Church matters, which is not surprising on the part of a member of the Roman Church; while, though he gives but one side—the Jewish side—of the Jewish problem, omitting counterbalancing statements on the Russian side, it cannot be said that he is unfair, since some of his quotations come from Russian communities, and most of them are less hackneyed than usual.

He first deals with "Religions and Nationalities," having laid a foundation of geographical and historical causes in "The Land and History." The comprehension of all these points is greatly aided by an excellent triple map (in color), which sets forth boundaries of land, climate, races, and religions. He sums up comprehensively and effectively the general problem in regard to the vitally important treatment of the annexed races and religions as follows:

"What treatment shall be accorded to them? What shall be made of these annexed peoples? Slaves or equals? Enemies or co-workers? This question presented itself at the end of the eighteenth century, on the day when Catherine II. took her share of Poland, and it has never since been possible to misunderstand its vital importance for the duration of the Empire. But, for a century, replies have varied with the autocrats who have followed one another at Petersburg. In this regard, Russian history of the nineteenth century may be divided into three periods: the first extends to the Polish insurrection of 1831; the second lasted from the Russo-German disagreement, which followed the Treaty of Berlin, until the death of Alexander II.—say about 1881; the third is still in progress. The first beheld the triumph of the liberal, or at least, intelligent and generous ideas of Alexander I. The second was an era of repression, which was, no doubt, cruel and irritating, but tolerant by fits and starts, often blind or indifferent, never aggressive (except in Poland). The third is nothing but a systematic persecution, crushing suppression; the official language calls it Russification."

The author then quotes the words of Alexander I., to the effect that it would be advisable to endow Poland with liberty, in order to preserve it from becoming, in the future, a plaything in the hands of the first fools who should happen along; and remarks: "If the ideas of Alexander I. have not prevailed in the Western 'march,' they still preside over the conduct of the Russian Government on the Eastern 'march.'" He instances the diplomatic results of liberal treatment in the case of the Buddhists—the semi-nomad Kalmuks, and the Buriats of Siberia, who, in their wanderings, have borne the fame of Russia's greatness into otherwise almost inaccessible regions, with the outcome that the good understanding (possibly a formal alliance) which unites the Tsar to the Dalai-Lama of Lhasa, has exerted occult influence upon his temporal vicar, the Emperor at Pekin, brought Mantchuria under the Russian power, permitted a Russian subject to be established as first secretary and minister of the Dalai-Lama, and "driven English imperialism to the two follies of the Thibetan expedition and the Russo-Japanese war." To the influence of the Dalai-Lama, M. Bérard attributes also the failure of the Japanese to hurl the Mongol tribes on the rear of the Russian army. "When the war is over," he continues, "and Mantchuria is recaptured or lost, the Dalai-Lama, under the hand of the Tsar, will be the best instrument of the Russo-Japanese alliance or of the Russian revenge, the costs of which, as one can foresee without being much of a prophet, England will have to bear." The liberally treated Mussulman has become a loyal Russian subject.

The plain moral drawn from these and similar cases is, that similar treatment of the nationalities in the Western "march" would have proved equally profitable, while from those Western provinces, in close contact with Western civilization, Russia could have appropriated the valuable fruits of experiments which other nations have hastened to copy. In view of recent revelations in various countries which, unlike Russia, never were afflicted with a Mongolian invasion, it may strike the reader as undue favoritism on the part of M. Bérard to assert that Russia's system of procedure in financial matters is a direct inheritance from the Tartar yoke of the 13th and 14th centuries. "What she calls administration we Westerners term graft and extortion," he says. He suggests studies in Finland on the subject of liquor license and honest public administration; in the Baltic provinces on German discipline and science—though he admits that Russians have considerable reason for their dislike to the natives of those provinces who have so eagerly and numerously grasped all desirable employments and posts. Poland he calls "the Slavonic France," asserting that the Poles possess the Gallic temperament, with all its qualities and defects. "What a useful, what a necessary complement to the Byzantized, Mongolized, Germanized Slavonia of Kieff, Moscow, and Petersburg would be this Latinized, Gallicized Slavonia of Warsaw!" he exclaims; and he argues that Russia and Poland united would form a complete nation, from the literary as well as the political point of view. "Only the foreigner, the German, has had occasion, and may yet have further occasion, to rejoice over these family dissensions, which all interests should moderate."

From the utilitarian standpoint the author regards the treatment of the Jews as a mistake. The contented Jew might have proved, in the hands of a sagacious Government, a more useful instrument in the "great design" upon Constantinople and Jerusalem than the contented Buddhist has been in Lhasa and Pekin, and he thinks Israelite capitalists of the whole world would have defrayed the expenses of a Russian attack in that quarter had the Government treated her Hebrew subjects equitably. Services of like description have been lost among the Armenians of Turkey and Persia by a similar shortsighted policy. At this point, M. Bérard administers a resounding blow to the policy of

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several nations." "The Napoleonic chimera still rules over the universe," he says. "Napoleon-Bismarck [why not N.-William?], Napoleon-Chamberlain, Napoleon-Roosevelt have attained, or are candidates for, apotheosis."

Under the section "Russification," M. Bérard treats of the different annexed peoples at length. On the whole, his remarks are very fair and intelligent, but are occasionally open to criticism. In the case of Poland, he quotes an article ten years old, by a Roman Catholic writer in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, concerning the reconciliation of the Roman and the Eastern Catholic churches. "This reconciliation is in the nature of things, and it is not necessary to be a great prophet to predict that it will be accomplished one of these days." On his own part the author suggests that this reconciliation would, possibly, "suppress the linguistic persecutions, by covering the national languages with the ritual mantle. It would finally lead to the restoration of local usages and privileges, by that same ritual protection, wherewith it would legitimize or cover them. For, in the bosom of the unified Church, Rome would not seek to stifle national churches." As to this hope, it may be said that it would require a very great prophet to predict reconciliation on any such grounds; that the question of "local usages and privileges" is not a matter of experiment, but of unfortunate historical experience, ready to hand, on the part of the Uniates; and that the substitution of "a ritual mantle" of language would be a distinct and enormous step backwards on the part of churches which already enjoy their service in the antique vernacular of each.

On political matters the author stands on firmer ground. He confesses that Germany, while disclaiming the intention of Germanizing her Poles, "maintains firmly this principle: All those who are subjects of a German State ought to be Germans"—which is the American principle also, though the same principle on the part of Russia is reprobated. But he accentuates an interesting difference between the Russian and the German attitude towards the Poles. "The Russian tortures the Pole, but he does not despise him, he even does him the honor to fear him. . . . The German despises the Pole; by the mouth of his professors he proclaims him a barbarian, a Slav—which expresses everything—inferior in language and culture; and, in the mouth of the Berlin politicians, the Pole is nothing more than an animal, simply a prolific and harmful 'rabbit,' which devastates the land of Germany, or mines it with his secret burrowing." In the author's opinion, the recent Russian defeats in the East will serve to demonstrate to the Poles how necessary to their welfare is economic and governmental solidarity with Russia, since the great factories of Poland lacked orders as soon as the war began; and separation, with the natural corollary—a tariff wall between Poland and Russia—would be fatal to their commerce.

The cause of the Jews is most interestingly and cleverly pleaded. "Only religious reason can be invoked against him [the Jew]," it is said, in summing up. If this statement is intended as an allusion to the kahal, it may be allowed to pass, for the kahal interferes with the laws of the Empire, which must, of course, be paramount. In any other sense it does not represent the facts. Again, it is indubitable that the execution of the famous "May Laws" entailed much distress. But M. Bérard, in common with other writers, fails to perceive that, in the majority of cases, the sufferers had been reaping the benefits of breaking the laws, often for many years, and were deliberately taking the chances of continued non-enforcement of them; whereas, they could have escaped the hardships of unannounced enforcement by settling their affairs at their leisure, during the years which preceded such abrupt enforcement as is complained of. The Russification of Finland and Armenia, with Governmental procedures (of a particularly extraordinary sort, supported by sworn testimony, in the latter case), is briefly but sufficiently set forth.

In treating of "Tsarism," in the last third of his volume, the author takes an interesting attitude:

"Far from being a specifically Russian product," he asserts, "we may say that Tsarism was imported, bit by bit, from abroad; that external necessities implanted it, then developed its rôle and prerogatives, made of it strength or weakness, according as these external necessities were themselves tightened or relaxed. . . . If we wish to find in our history of France a symbol or summary of the career of Tsarism, we must think of the series of grandeurs and decadences which led Bonaparte from the humble beginnings of Brienne to the splendors of Austerlitz, then to the bloody declines of Eylau and Moscow, to the final fall at Waterloo."

The historical summary of the rise of "Tsarism," which follows, is extremely able, and brings the reader down to the present day, including accounts of the recent strike troubles, the programme of the various political parties, and Imperial rescripts and decrees. The author has accomplished his task so well, with such manifest intention to be just, that the sequence of events and the logic of the situation are remarkably clear, and, for that reason, his book is unusually valuable.

MORE NOVELS.

The Accomplice. By Frederick Trevor Hill. Harper & Brothers.

The Tyranny of the Dark. By Hamlin Garland. Harper & Brothers.

Jörn Uhl. By Gustav Frenssen. Translated by F. S. Delmer. London: Archibald Constable & Co.; Boston: Dana Estes & Company.

The Millbank Case. By George Dyre Eldridge. Henry Holt & Co.

The Wine-Press. By Anna Robeson Brown. D. Appleton & Co.

Partners of the Tide. By Joseph C. Lincoln. A. S. Barnes & Co.

The Venus of Cadiz. By Richard Fisguill. Henry Holt & Co.

'The Accomplice' teaches that when jurors on murder trials walk abroad between sittings of the court, they may hear and see things which will embarrass them in the performance of their duty, particularly when the judge sternly refuses to discharge them though they cry aloud that they have tasted of the fruit of the tree of knowledge. Foreman Lambert, in the case of the People vs. the Murderer of Gregory Shaw, did vast rambling and love-making in the intervals of professional duty. It was, to be sure, at times complicating, yet in the end led to good, which included the acquisition of a vivacious wife, who was a fine horsewoman and, after a ride, said she felt "bustingly buoyant." No wonder that the lawyer failed to hypnotize a foreman so breezily protected. In view of these advantages, possibly the next advance in legal usage will be the adoption of a new jury system, "instead of which they go about the country shooting ducks." There is a marked absence of the gruesome in this cheerful little novel of murder and courtship. Furthermore, the solution of the mystery is not without originality. To divulge the surprise would be to rival the crime. The reader who is not too insistent on courtroom probabilities, will find some entertainment in following the clue to the end, and may justly perceive a certain cleverness in the tilts between the prosecutor and the counsel for defendant.

Hypnotic influences are the main motive of Mr. Garland's interesting novel. But it ends a chapter too soon. The reader would like to hear definitely whether the spiritualistic manifestations made through the medium Viola Lambert were all of hypnotic origin; whether, removed from the influence of Clarke, Viola became a normal girl, or whether the rappings still pursued her in spite of her scientific guardian. The young scientist who carried Viola away from her servitude as a medium, had had a severe tax laid upon his well-established incredulity when megaphones floated about in the air telling family jokes, and when ancestral wine glasses made their way out of glass cabinets at ghostly bidding—to disclose the medium, when all was done, tied and sleeping beyond even scientific cavil. Therefore, in spite of the rescue of the maiden by the microbe-hunter, it is impossible not to wonder if they lived thenceforth happily or spookily. It would be wholly unjust to dismiss Mr. Garland's book as a commonplace contribution to the question of spirit manifestation. It is written in a fine frenzy of enthusiasm for science and scientists, and there is a tingle of poetry in its proclamation of the meaning behind each new-found germ of life—a noble war-music in the pæans and laments for the heroes and martyrs who face the perils of discovery. To be candid, the scientific portions of the book are the finest and the most absorbing. They suggest a new era in novels—what Stevenson calls "the mysterious inwards of psychology." Perhaps it is the effort to make a thoroughly natural book out of a preternatural subject that has let fall upon the characters and conversations a garment of homespun. 'Perhaps, says the spirit which questions, it is that no tale of the table-tipping, rope-bound phases of the occult can escape the taint of the ridiculous. Family affections and hypnotism are, however, wholly dignified themes, and when bacteriology walks between, there are ingredients for absorbing reading. This Mr. Garland's book furnishes—for half a volume. When it comes to the test "séance," it is comparatively easy for the reader to turn down the midnight lamp. The author has aimed artistically in making his two principal "spiritists" men who are not all knave, but mixtures of self-seeking with sincerity of longing after their dead. They are repulsive, but they are built on human feeling.

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Freely offered advice to the English reader of 'Jörn Uhl' is to skip the story and read the reflections and sermons, even though this be materially to reduce the 400 pages. What an excellent preacher and pastor must be Gustav Frenssen! In him is found what joy in the light spaces, what insight into the dark corners of humanity! And how much he knows of the life of a Frisian farmer and of the operations of the farm! How dreary and sordid the one—how grimy and crude the other! If anything can be uglier than his sorrows, it is his joys. His superstitions even, to which we look for the poetry of a people, are lumpish; his loves and his hates raw; his life and his death a record depressing, distasteful, alkaline. For Germany this is the book that "took her by storm." Its author "awoke to find himself famous." His "books had aroused much hostility among the orthodox Church party, and in 1903 the poet-preacher gave up his pastorate and retired to the beloved and homely Holstein village of his youth, henceforth a free man, to devote himself to literature." "It is a living book," says the translator. "It is a book so throbbing with real life, passion, and poetry, that we overlook in it those epic liberties of narrative on account of which your pedantic critics so damn it." Thus the two points of view, the German and the non-German, are not likely to agree. The personal equation will be as wide as the miles that stretch between the races. Fatigued by the epic digressions, the English reader will hardly attain to that "second reading" which the translator promises "will reconcile us to much that at first glance seemed arbitrary and inartistic in the development of the story." In the instance of the fine description of the battle of Gravelotte, history would amply justify the epic digression; as it happens, too, there is an even more moving justification than history—namely, the absence of history; the panorama of battle as it affects not the men who make the quarrel, but the men who do the fighting—the peasant's portion. A few such pictures would seem enough to abolish war. Those excursions, let it be repeated, which are inspired by religion and philosophy, are their own hearty excuse for being.

Murder stories plainly call for a second reading, to make sure that the means justify the end. To look at the last page first is an affront to the author, pardonable only when the book is too trifling to be read at all. The final disclosure in 'The Millbank Case' is well-contrived, and so is the mingling of side issues with the murder motive. The light is thrown here and there prominently on the immaterial in beautifully misleading fashion; the various threads so contributing to the tangle as to heighten the likeness to a real criminal mystery. Incidentally, there are scenes from loggers' camps that give a touch of landscape as background. The story is fluently told, and is not ungenial, as murders go. Character-drawing is not to be too closely looked for where each person is simply a feature of a case. The detective wears his customary garb of lenses and feelers, yet does not dazzle with excess of Grandisonian light. The stationer's evidence at the coroner's inquest still leaves one wondering how the judge's posthumous statement could have been written on paper not manufactured till after the judge's death, unless, indeed, the stationer, like other characters in history, lied.

'The Wine-Press' is a study of the *Ewig-Weibliche* as influenced by the *Ewig-Männliche*—more concisely, the soul history of Jack and Jill. Of Jill as she emerged a few decades ago from Jack's age-old tyranny and began to be a college girl. Of her brave and honest endeavor to live her own life and to do her own tasks while eliminating Jack from the problem, since she could not eliminate him from the earth. Of the views of Jack upon this theory. Of Jill's tumbling down. Of Jack's efforts to help her up, and of the broken crowns for which at the last Jill herself brings the vinegar and brown paper. The story thus outlined appears trite. In reality the edge of obviousness has been modified by the heredities and surroundings in which the author has entangled her heroine. Here is Giovanna, half New England, half Italian, coerced into the position of guardian to the half-sister whose father has forsaken Giovanna's mother—that half-sister a flighty, worthless child of sin. Her training in a New England college urges Giovanna to austerity, her Italian blood cries out for vengeance, not on men who betray, but on all men—because all betray. Truly, poor Giovanna, with her lineage, her education, and her experience, is a battleground for forces swooping up from a score of directions, a hundred distances, with a great pivotal clash. To give any verisimilitude to so complex a struggle, to picture a species of Lucrezia Borgia pouring tea at a girl's college, a Stream of Tendencies keeping house in a New York flat, is a rugged undertaking. It is due to Miss Brown to say that she has been most conspicuously successful where her task has been the hardest; namely, where the homely and the tragic confront one another. Where weakness chiefly lies is in the limp into commonplace situation which all her ability has not averted. The reader's spirits sink a little when the doctor, the child, and the governess meet on the terrace; when the child discloses grown-up secrets in the way of all the artificial children of fiction; when the doctor shows the skin of a Rochester, but the voice of the analyst, *vivisecting himself*, not as do the Rochesters, but after the manner of the sex which invented the Rochester and set him up to be adored; greatly subjective about his own objectivity, peering inward at his own powers of striking out. A threadbareness of phrase comes as a surprise, too; the "stifled yawns," the excessive hair, eyes, and graces of the young person are a water-torture not worthy of a writer whose brilliant sayings are as spontaneous as they are frequent. Her college portraits are vivid, but have not brought the day we still look for when deans shall use aright their future tenses. Very charming, quite aside from the story, is the setting of the closing scenes—a Maine coast village with its pungency of climate and characters. Entirely to be praised is the resultant tone of a novel which deals in extreme cases. That woman is woman, and man man, is the conclusion reached through many and miry ways. But there is a rider to the moral. "You and I," says the doctor, "are character and character as well as man and woman. I hate this pitting of one against the other, when nature means us to pull together harmoniously." "You'll find a man breaks down from overwork trying to satisfy some woman, quite as often as the woman suffers from his vices or his indifference. I repeat, it's an individual question." So much for the wisdom of 'The Wine-Press'; for its wit may be taken this single example from many: "She was . . . a type which . . . takes for sensitiveness a somewhat unbalanced tendency to be personal." The portrait of the lady Dean—delicate, vague, limited, literary, benevolent—is a masterpiece in tones of silver-gray.

The Old Salt is a more sophisticated being than he used to be. He uses Wellerisms, to which one instinctively attaches a land association; he is consciously "funny" where his predecessor used to be unconsciously quaint. Through steam tugs and the telephone he has learned the slang of cities, and grafts it upon the dialect of his coast and his calling. And to these modern attachments he has added (or, as he would probably say, annexed) a new tract of qualities. He quibbles a little, smuggles a little, over-reaches a little; without being the bad man of the plot, he is ready for tricks. But if he is Captain Titcomb in 'Partners of the Tide,' he is brought to see the error of his ways by his younger, more straightforward partner. Luck having been with him, he says in the last page that he is very glad he has been good. The book is rural drama of the sort that appeals to the rather old and the rather young. The senior partner is not so wholesome a hero as the older-fashioned salt for our boys, who are quite as ready to be impressed by the comical side of a funny captain as by his turning turtle into rectitude. For the adult there is humor of the domestic sort that lives in sea-coast kitchens and best parlors. For all there are re-glimpses of an old friend, Captain Eri, and very good reading in the spirited story of anchors lifted and wrecks floated. The Cape Cod atmosphere, out-of-doors and in, liberally enswathes the drama; and in the final scenes of adventure the interest mounts to a goodly height.

'The Venus of Cadiz' is an extravaganza. The author has laid the scene of his story in Kentucky; his native bent is American, but his literary method is French, suggesting a study of About and other masters of this vein, and the contrast between the scene and characters and the method is sometimes startling, sometimes fatiguing. It is a rollicking and impossible tale, in which the author gets rather beyond his depth, while the reader is just sufficiently amused to flounder after him in astonishment.

LAMPRECHT'S WHAT IS HISTORY?

What is History? Five Lectures on the Modern Science of History. By Karl Lamprecht, Professor of History in the University of Leipzig. Translated from the German by E. A. Andrews. The Macmillan Co. 1905.

Before entering on his criticism of these lectures, the reviewer might file a caveat against error; for only a thoroughly assured critic will assert that he understands Professor Lamprecht's teachings in all their

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parts—which do not always harmonize—or that he expounds them according to their author's intention. Professor Lamprecht has a clumsy method of presentation, even for a German *Gelehrter*, and he adds to the difficulty by much elusiveness of demonstration and by an awkward terminology.

The upshot of his doctrine is contained in two sentences: "History in itself," he says, "is nothing but applied psychology. Hence we must look to theoretical psychology to give us the clue to its true interpretation." From this point of departure he proceeds to range over the evolution of races, nations, and civilizations. The psychologist, we are led to infer, can take any individual person, and, after subjecting him to regular laboratory tests, can predict exactly what that person can do, think, or feel. Simply extend this procedure, says Professor Lamprecht, from the individual to the mass, and you have the solution of the problem of the mass at any given period. Your individual's "dominant" may be music—very good; psychology knows just what reactions a musician is likely to experience. So the "dominant" of your mass, or nation, or "epoch of culture" may be now Subjectivism, now Conventionalism, now Typism, and of course you have pigeonholed all the necessary data for those or other isms.

To discover the "psychic core" or "dominant" or "mass-psychic"—which seem to be nearly synonymous terms—becomes, therefore, the chief business of the historian. He puts from him the mere narration of events, as a puerile business on a par with the writing of fairy tales, and devotes himself to collecting vast multitudes of facts, from which he can decoct the *psyche*. We picture Professor Lamprecht's library shelves as containing not books but phials—like those one sees at the apothecary's—labelled *Spirit. Teuton. VI. Sacc.; Psyche Galliæ XVI. Sacc.*, and so on. If he happens to wish to examine Richelieu or Mazarin, let us say, he needs only to uncork the bottle in which he keeps the *psyche* of seventeenth-century France, refresh his memory by taking a good smell of it, and then Mazarin or Richelieu becomes clear to him.

The first criticism that we make of the Lamprecht *dominant* under its various aliases is that it strikingly resembles the friend of our youth, the *Zeitgeist*, or Spirit of the Times, as our grandfathers, who were not yet versed in German, called it. Now the *Zeitgeist* is a most convenient and respectable abstraction, which, like the Normal Man or a composite photograph, sums up the features common to a large number of individuals. No one denies that times or epochs have their characteristic qualities, and differ from each other as the seasons do. But the true student of history will never forget that as every generalization ignores partial differences, so it can never be wholly true. A traveller on first landing in a foreign country thinks that all of its people are alike; but very soon he begins to distinguish individuals emerging from the mass, and, if he stays long enough, he sees only individuals. So the historian may approach a bygone epoch with the idea that it had only a single dominant; as he extends his acquaintance, however, he will discover in it five, six, ten, a dozen forms of activity, any one of which may plausibly be regarded as a dominant. To cite a single example: in the decade before the Civil War, which was the political dominant in the United States, Slavery or Union? In the course of time, Slavery and Secession formed one binary dominant and Emancipation and Union another; but historians are still disputing whether the abolition of slavery was merely an accompaniment of the preservation of the Union, or whether the Union was preserved because slavery was abolished. Professor Lamprecht's "psychic core" does not help at all, so far as we see, to decide such a question; for history should be a narrative and exposition of concrete human development, whereas the *Zeitgeist*, dominant, and their like, are abstractions.

One may well doubt, furthermore, whether it will ever be possible to collect, as Professor Lamprecht assumes to do, all the psychological ingredients of any age. The *Zeitgeist* can perhaps be reasonably well defined; but who can follow and measure all the undercurrents, the eddies, the backwater? Nations, like individuals, often lie fallow: often, too, important movements leave little documentary evidence. Is it so certain that a psychologist can gauge the passions and aspirations of preglacial man from a few rude pictures scratched on a reindeer's bone? Professor Lamphecht continually confounds technical skill in depicting or registering with "psychic" capacity. As if the Florentines of Dante's time, for instance, could be measured by the paintings of that time, or the genius of Bacon or of Franklin could be divined from their efforts in verse. Yet, if only the paintings of thirteenth-century Florence had survived, and if nothing remained of Bacon or of Franklin except their verse, Professor Lamprecht would proceed to reconstruct either the epoch or the men without so much as suspecting that his data were unrepresentative. In short, we cannot believe that a method which would fail if applied to even a small community or individual, to-day, can be infallible when applied to entire nations and epochs which have left behind them only scanty, or sporadic, or unrevealing memorials. To put the theory to the test, let any one attempt to define the "psychic core" of Greater New York for a single day.

Another difficulty with Professor Lamprecht's method, from the historian's standpoint, is its elusiveness. He seems perpetually to assume causes to fit his effects. It is so easy, apparently, for the psychologist to accept any problem as solved when he can say, "These phenomena are, of course, merely reactions to new stimuli." But your historian is not nearly so confiding a creature. Tell him that Napoleon III. simply reacted to a new stimulus when he unexpectedly stopped the Italian war after the battle of Solferino, and he will suspect you are mocking him. But let Dr. Lamprecht speak for himself. Here is a characteristic passage, in which he "explains" the development of Germany between 1870 and 1890:

"The first effect of the revolution is a complete dissociation of the former socio-psychic conditions. The social changes with the resulting increase of city activity, with its nervous haste and anxiety, its unscrupulous abuse of individual energy, progress of the technical arts, and the extraordinary multiplication of the means of communication throughout the world, the rapid development of all the sciences which deal directly with man, followed this enlargement of life: all these and a thousand other moments of *modern development* produced a great number of new stimuli, which neither the individual nor the community could escape; for they formed in their totality, so to speak, a new historical atmosphere. But the individual as well as the soul of the people as a whole, being continually surrounded, besieged, and permeated by a flood of new impressions, soon lost the former self-mastery and weakly yielded to the new stimuli. This went on, in the beginning, under a strong repulsion of the higher moments of will; energy was absorbed in a high degree by the acceptation and augmentation of the new stimuli, and was thus limited to an energetic volition in economic life, and to a marked receptiveness in the domains of the higher intellectual culture. Moral standards and intellect were taxed to the utmost; they were subjected to the perpetual assault of the new stimuli. This is the cause of the general nervous excitement which now began and which often came to light in pathological investigations—it was now that neurasthenia was discovered as a special form of disease—and which has not abated until to-day, but rather entered into the very psychic nature of the present and has become a constituent of the excitability or mental attitude of the age" (pp. 98-100).

Now we ask, does any one find in these vague assertions, stated in terms of psychology, an equivalent for an historical account of the development of Germany between 1870 and 1890? If you saw that paragraph by itself, should you inevitably recognize what nation and epoch it refers to? We need hardly point out how Professor Lamprecht continually confuses causes and effects—stimuli and reaction—and so dresses up a description to serve his purpose. Dealing as he does with abstractions, he apparently fails to see that his chief factor—"modern development"—is unaccounted for. In reality, it is merely the sum of the various symptoms in individuals and in the community; yet he refers to it as if it were some external force which caused those manifestations in the German people. This is as absurd as to confound the violin with the violinist. Such mental confusion is the penalty men pay for losing their grip on the concrete. The most familiar example of this form of mental degeneracy to-day is the abstract State which the German Socialists have conjured up—the State which is perfect, in spite its being composed of very imperfect units.

Professor Lamprecht's method may be good psychology, it certainly is not history. Whatever help the historian can get from psychology—and we are inclined to believe that it may be considerable—he must remember that the two fields are absolutely distinct. If he allows himself to psychologize history, he will fall into the slough of abstractions whither Professor Lamprecht has preceded him—that oozy, impassable slough where *Tendenz* historians and literary critics and doctrinaires of all sorts flounder until they sink. History may properly be regarded as having a share in philosophy, economics, geography, religion, art, literature, ethics, sociology, psychology, and other human sciences, but it is independent of them, and it should refuse to be dominated by psychology as much as by pathology or any of the rest.

For history is, above all, human and concrete; and it can no more be expressed by abstract formulas than Shakspere's sonnets can be expressed by algebraic signs. What shall we think, then, of Professor Lamprecht, who says of the ways in which civilization is transmitted from age to age

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and from people to people, "We shall be able, when using the picture of a well-known psychic process, to speak with reference to these processes of osmotic phenomena of diosmosis, endosmosis, and exosmosis" (pp. 196-7)? Shall we not conclude that we are dealing not with an historian but with a psychologist—one who by temperament construes all events and human deeds abstractly, in terms of psychology? We leave specialists in that science to make what they can of his osmotic phenomena, fully persuaded ourselves that diosmosis has no more than capillary attraction or deglutition to do with history.

Yet we cannot but be grateful to Professor Lamprecht for stating the argument for psychology so absolutely, because nothing clears the air more quickly than extreme statements. No doubt, as we said above, historians can derive helpful suggestions from a knowledge of psychological results: Professor Lamprecht will teach them what to expect from the most thoroughgoing pursuit of psychology, and his book will serve them as a warning what to avoid. We only regret that his awkwardness in thought and expression will retard the rapid diffusion of his doctrines: for the sooner these are generally understood, the sooner will historical writers realize that their strength lies in loyalty to their own subject, and cease to surrender their birthright to an alien science.

THE ARGIVE HERÆUM.

The Argive Heræum. By Charles Waldstein, with the coöperation of George Henry Chase, Herbert Fletcher De Cou, Theodore Woolsey Heermance, Joseph Clark Hoppin, Albert Morton Lythgoe, Richard Norton, Rufus Byam Richardson, Edward Lippincott Tilton, Henry Stephens Washington, and James Rignall Wheeler. In two volumes. Volume ii. Terra-cotta Figurines, Terra-cotta Reliefs, Vases and Vase Fragments, Bronzes, Engraved Stones, Gems, and Ivories, Coins, Egyptian or Græco-Egyptian Objects. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1905. Pp. xxix., 389, 103 pls., 216 figs. 4to.

It is about two years and a half since the first volume of this work was noticed in these columns. The delay in the appearance of the second volume is more or less generally known to be due to the fact that the preparation of the section on Bronzes, by Mr. De Cou, took some years longer than was at first expected. This section is, therefore, naturally the first to which one turns. In bulk (pp. 149, with 58 plates) it is certainly one of the most important parts of the book, and it is evident that the careful cleansing and measuring of the 2,841 objects described must have been a long and toilsome task, which Mr. De Cou has performed most conscientiously. The objects themselves are, however, not beautiful, nor especially interesting, and it seems to us that a somewhat more summary treatment might have been as satisfactory as the detailed catalogue here presented. The circumstances of discovery at the Heræum afforded little or no indication of date, except that practically all the bronzes, and most of the other small objects, were earlier than the destruction of the old temple, in 423 B. C.; and for this reason as well as for the sake of clearness, Mr. De Cou has classified the bronzes first by subjects, as statuettes, pins, nails, etc., and second, by style. This is reasonable, and his classification may serve as a model for future catalogues of similar objects. The material for study is presented much as it might be in the cases of a museum. To be sure, both text and plates are encumbered with duplicates, which might as well have been omitted, but that is a small matter. The real fault of this section is a complete lack of perspective. The bronzes are set before us as if they were in themselves important objects, whereas their only importance lies in their relation to other things. In his prefatory note, Professor Waldstein says that "there is hardly an archæologist living who has had more experience in dealing with ancient bronzes" than Mr. De Cou. This may be the case; but if Mr. De Cou's experience has brought him any broader knowledge than that required for the description of the objects immediately before him, he conceals it most successfully. This is especially unfortunate in a book like this, which ought to appeal, not only to specialists, but also to the general cultivated public. The entire volume consists, for the most part, of descriptions of small objects, but Mr. De Cou is the only contributor who has been unable, or unwilling, to add some touch of life to the bare bones of his catalogue. The appendix, containing the inscriptions on bronze, is careful and scholarly.

In his prefatory note, Professor Waldstein, while regretting the delay in the appearance of the volume, which has made some chapters seem, in part, a little out of date, suggests that the independent publication of the discoveries at the Heræum, without the discussion of more recent discoveries in Crete and elsewhere, may have a peculiar value of its own. In this we can hardly agree with him, and we are glad that he has found a place in his "note" for some discussion of recent investigations. He maintains that at the Heræum a local development in pottery and its decoration can be traced from neolithic times to the Mycenæan period, and that the Mycenæan style arose in the Argolid. It is therefore impossible for him to accept Mr. Duncan MacKenzie's theory that the Mycenæan style was developed in Crete from the Kamares style through that called Early Minoan. On the contrary, he suggests that the Cretan monochrome Mycenæan style was brought about by the introduction of pure Mycenæan work from elsewhere. This would account for the differences between Cretan Mycenæan decoration and the Mycenæan decoration in use on the continent. It is as yet perhaps too early to be dogmatic in these matters. There was evidently much intercourse between the inhabitants of the different coasts of the Ægean in early times, and the Mycenæan civilization doubtless owes its development, even if not its origin, to a variety of reciprocal influences. Professor Waldstein further suggests that the Mycenæan style of sculpture persisted in Crete down to the time when Cretan sculptors, such as Dipoinos and Skyllis, influenced the beginnings of archaic Greek art, and that some parts of the palace at Cnossus, including the paintings and stucco decorations, belong to this comparatively late period. The suggestion is interesting, involving, as it does, a redating of much of what has recently been found in Crete, but will remain a mere suggestion until supported by more complete evidence than is here produced.

Of the Terra-cotta Figures discussed by Professor Waldstein and Dr. Chase, over 85 per cent. are specimens of the flat-bodied type, with either the "bird-face" or the archaic head, which is its successor. It is the preponderance of this type which justifies the name "Argive." Since some of these rude figures, evidently not among the earlier specimens, were found in a tomb which contained nothing later than Mycenæan times, it is clear that the origin of the type does not belong to the period after the "Dorian Invasion," and the circumstances make it probable that the "Argive" type came into being before the rise of the Mycenæan civilization. The figures of this type represent a female figure, probably a primitive nature-goddess. There are among the terra-cottas from the Heræum none of the charming little statuettes such as have made Tanagra and Myrina famous. Professor Waldstein and Professor Hoppin publish also ten terra-cotta plaques with reliefs, all archaic ex-votos.

Perhaps the most interesting part of the book is the section on Vases and Vase Fragments, by Professor Hoppin. About 250,000 fragments, belonging to some 50,000 vases, were found. Of this vast number, Professor Hoppin has selected comparatively few representative pieces for publication. Unfortunately, few vases were found entire, and not many could be reconstructed from the fragments, nor are any of these remarkable for their beauty. Of Attic vases of the best period but few fragments were found, no doubt on account of the embargo mentioned by Herodotus (v. 88). By far the greatest number of fragments belong to pre-Hellenic times, if we except a class of rather coarse local pottery, which seems to have been produced for a long period. Geometric vases are numerous. Professor Hoppin proposes a new classification of Mycenæan vases, which differs from that of Furtwängler and Loeschcke by ascribing to the second class a large part of what they put under class iii. By the new classification the naturalistic or pictorial decoration falls under classes i. and ii., the conventional style under classes iii. and iv. The subdivisions of classes ii. and iii. are less important. In the discussion of the vases generally called proto-Corinthian, Professor Hoppin shows that their peculiar style of decoration probably originated in the Argolid, a theory which has already been accepted by other authorities, and he therefore designates them as "Argive" vases. He differs, however, from Professor Waldstein in so far as he regards the "Argive" style as something practically new, a development from the Mycenæan style, while Professor Waldstein considers it rather a development of the linear principle which shows itself persistently in the Argolid from the earliest times. To us Professor Hoppin's view seems, on the whole, preferable. The division into "Early Argive," a series of small vases with linear ornament, "Linear Argive," vases with linear decoration showing the influence of the "geometric" style, and "Oriental Argive," is clear and satisfactory. The old term, "Proto-Corin-

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thian," however, implying nothing more than that this style is a logical precursor of the Corinthian style, has certain advantages over the term "Argive," especially if the Mycenæan style should prove, after all, to have originated in the Argolid. Professor Hoppin finds it impossible to explain the growth of the "geometric" style without foreign influence, at least at the Heræum, whatever may have been the case in Attica. Some of the local, or unclassified, ware published in the colored plates is interesting as offering examples of individual or local vagaries; and the fragmentary Attic polychrome cylix ascribed to the school of Euphronios is very attractive. The Inscriptions on Vases, carefully published by Dr. Heermance, are unfortunately of little interest.

Among the Engraved Stones, Gems, and Ivories, discussed by Prof. Richard Norton, is a series of steatite stones, all rudely carved and pierced, which are interesting chiefly because they seem to be a strictly local product. The Coins found at the Heræum were few—only 155—and of these only about one-fiftieth belong to the times of free Greece. The latest are of Venetian times. A series of minute bronze pieces, some of which bear an alpha with broken cross-bar, may, perhaps, as Mr. De Cou, who publishes the Coins, suggests, indicate that, after the suppression of the Achæan League, a local coinage was permitted to Argos. The Egyptian and Græco-Egyptian Objects found are few, and offer nothing new. They are published and discussed by Mr. Lythgoe. All seem to belong to Naucratis, with the exception of two glass scaraboids, which show Phœnician influence. These belong, however, to the same date as the rest—the twenty-sixth dynasty and later.

We have noticed a few misprints, but none of importance, except the following, which are somewhat irritating: Pages 145, 147, and 148 (*bis*), the references to Plate LXIV. should be to Plate LXVI.; page 150, for LXV., read LXIV.; pages 153 and 154, for LXVI., read LXV.; page 158, for LXV., read LXIV.; and page 165, for LXVI., read LXV. This volume may not be as interesting to the general reader as was its predecessor, but it contains much valuable material, well arranged and presented. Those responsible for the publication may congratulate themselves upon having published in a dignified and adequate manner the important results of the work at the Argive Heræum.

Edward FitzGerald. By Arthur C. Benson. (English Men of Letters.) The Macmillan Co. 1905.

Mr. Benson's brief biography follows close on the heels of Mr. Thomas Wright's exhaustive 'Life,' into which was gathered every impression, every anecdote, of Edward FitzGerald that his distinguished friends had recorded or the old people of Woodbridge could recollect or invent. The biographer of a man whose life is wholly without action has no easy task. He is like a dramatist bidden to compose a drama in which there will be no entanglement, and therefore no solution, no crisis, and no dénouement. So it is that FitzGerald's biographers must fall back on minutiæ and psychology. If he had only had one serious illness, one real love affair—we do not think any one has proved a hopeless passion for Miss Crabbe—in short, a crisis of any sort to mark a reversal, so that one could say that after this he was an altered man, or that was in his palmier days! FitzGerald had no palmy days, no poignant experience to change the scheme of his life. His marriage does not count; it affected him like a bad fit of indigestion. It is curious to observe how, as one reads this 'Life,' one feels again, as in reading the longer work of Wright, that nothing ever checked the sluggish current of FitzGerald's provincial existence; insensibly he passed from youth to middle age, having no fire of spring to die down in his life, no "sweet-scented manuscript" of youth to close, no harvest of wild oats to reap, being and doing at twenty what he was to be and do at forty, and fifty, and sixty, and till the end.

We may be quite sure that we know the worst of FitzGerald. He spent his life in a little English country town, where a man cannot take his boots to be mended (in English country towns one does) or change his lodgings without the event passing into the local saga. Some day we intend to look into the Woodbridge saga; we expect to find that there were in the generation of FitzGerald, or before, or after, other eccentric gentlemen such as abound in English country towns, on whom if one took to inquiring one could fasten half the characteristics that have been raked up in Woodbridge by "Fitz's" industrious biographers. Old gentlemen of his type are so much alike in that setting; why should he have to shoulder all the peculiarities that make up the Woodbridge type? Such as it is, however, the man's portrait is painted, and provincial candor and the provincial long memory for trifles have done their worst. It remains for his biographers to explain and account for the charm that made him so dear to Thackeray and Tennyson and the rest, and for what, in every case where it happens, seems so mysterious, the flowering of all a man's talents into a single great literary achievement—in this case the paraphrase of Omar.

FitzGerald was not the man to make what is called a "good" translation. He could say very effective things about the Greek tragedians, but that did not prevent him from wanting to rewrite their plays. He left Creon out of the two scenes in the "Œdipus Tyrannus" because he did not think his presence essential to the situation, and he added florid ornament to the language of Æschylus. Browning, when he translates the "Agamemnon," or the "Alcestis," or the "Mad Heracles," too often allows himself to seem incoherent and uncouth in his effort to be literal, but we have at least an agreeable security that if we turn to the Greek text for the meaning we shall find there the idea that the translator is trying to express. With FitzGerald we have no such assurance. We suppose this indefiniteness of activity, so exact a reflection of his life, may account for the fact that a recent essayist, desiring to attach a superlative to FitzGerald, called him "the most refined letter-writer of England in a century"—certainly not an exhaustive or too flattering definition.

Mr. Benson's book will be found to contain all that any reader needs to know about FitzGerald, and it is an excellent cheap substitute for those who cannot afford Mr. Wright's massive illustrated volumes. In the matter of form it is no improvement on the larger work. No one was more sensitive than FitzGerald to English style, and so far his biographers have written in a careless, slipshod manner that he would have found very offensive. Mr. Benson, like Mr. Wright, has simply flung his English sentences together. One paragraph will serve to illustrate what we mean:

"However indulgently one may try to judge FitzGerald's versions of Calderon, they cannot be reckoned among his literary successes. It is probable that FitzGerald did not really understand Calderon, and it is not unfair to say that we have here a marked instance of FitzGerald's friendships biassing his studies. It was, no doubt, the influence of Cowell that turned his mind definitely to Calderon. It is probable that Cowell did not introduce FitzGerald to Calderon, though he undoubtedly blew the smouldering ashes to a flame. Archbishop Trench was a translator of Calderon, and Tennyson mentions Calderon in a suppressed stanza of the 'Palace of Art'; so that it is probable that Calderon was not unknown in FitzGerald's Cambridge circle" (p. 124).

This is the style of notes in a literary notebook, all ready to be worked up into periods. Mr. Benson gives us again all the well-known anecdotes, and, like Mr. Wright, falls back on the regular resource of FitzGerald's biographers, who, having little to say, repeat that little more than once. We cannot take leave of the subject without a final regret that a writer so intelligent as Mr. Benson did not think it beneath his dignity to record the trivial and sordid gossip of Woodbridge, much of it unkind, and none of it to be trusted, if we know anything of English provincial manners and the powers of observation of the inhabitants. FitzGerald paid dearly for his so-called seclusion. If he had lived in the real solitude of London streets and crowds, who would have thought it either essential to a knowledge of his personality or worthy of a historian of literature to record that on occasion he could snub an officious intruder (pp. 173-174), or express a passing disgust of self-indulgence (p. 176), or in a moment of irritation reject help in his growing blindness (p. 175), or, in such a silly season as may befall any one of us, utter sentiments that sound mawkish (p. 50), or yearn for affection without knowing quite how to win or retain it (p. 196 and *passim*)? These are the minor weaknesses common to most men and women. And as for famous men, what a record of irritation and hypersensitiveness might have been raked together for Tennyson from the memories of observing neighbors of Farringford and Aldworth! Where FitzGerald was misguided was in placing himself, a proud, sensitive, self-willed, indolent, capricious being, in the pitiless glare of provincial life. He added to this the fatal mistake of giving his biographer no incidents to record. One must still feel that the real life of the translator of Omar is told in his admirable letters, and that his ideal biographer, if we must have one at all, will give us more letters and no foolish anecdotes.

Richard Wagner to Mathilde Wesendonck. Translated by W. A. Ellis. Scribners. 1905.

For Wagner's admirers his personality apparently has quite as great an interest as his art. About a year ago his letters to Frau Wesendonck were printed in Germany,

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and already the publishers are announcing the twentieth thousand—a probably unprecedented event in the records of musical literature. The reason is not far to seek. In these letters Wagner reveals his inmost thoughts and aspirations even more intimately than in his correspondence with Liszt; preëminently sympathetic as Liszt was, he could not quite take the place of a woman confidant in the case of a man like Wagner. The wife of Otto Wesendonck seems to have had a genius for sympathy, and it is a great pity that only a very few of her letters to Wagner have been preserved to be printed in this volume. What became of the others is not known; Mr. Ellis comes to the conclusion that Wagner's (first) wife destroyed the whole bundle in a fit of jealousy, being unable to understand a friendship such as existed between him and his generous patron's wife—a friendship concerning which Wagner wrote to his sister that "the very highness and unselfishness of such relations as subsisted between us made them forever impossible of explanation to a nature like my wife's"; while Frau Wesendonck herself wrote, in her quaint English in a letter dated 1892 (of which Mr. Ellis prints a facsimile): "The tie that bound him to Mathilde Wesendonck, whom he then called his 'Muse,' was of so high, pure, noble, and ideal Nature that, alas, it will only be valued of those, that in their own Noble chest find the same elevation and selfishlessness of Mind."

As Wagner's letters, with all their terms of endearment, bear witness on every page to the truth of these statements, it was hardly necessary for Mr. Ellis to write a sixty-two-page introduction to prove that Wagner did not treat his wife unkindly, but that he really was a martyr, tied to a woman far below him mentally, unable either to understand or to love him; a woman addicted for a long time to the use of crude laudanum, which occasionally must have made her behave "like a she-devil in the house." One cannot but agree with Mr. Ellis, however, that when Minna left her husband, after they had been married half a year, and he appealed for a divorce, it was a great pity he withdrew the suit and welcomed back the penitent. Never was there a more ill-mated couple, and it is not surprising that Wagner, when he found in Frau Wesendonck the kind of woman he ought to have married, was prompted by his always extravagant and uncurbed feelings to actions which his wife and the Zurich gossips may be pardoned for having misinterpreted. The tragic situation is immortalized in the greatest of all operas, "Tristan and Isolde," and this is one of the main reasons why these letters, written in the same volcanic style as that opera, have made such a deep and immediate appeal to the musical world.

As the contents of the present volume were reviewed at length in these columns last September, it is not necessary to dwell on them again. The peculiarities of Wagner's style are to a considerable extent reflected in the English version. The loquacious translator, not content with his long Introduction, also favors the reader with a "Valedictory," in which he discusses the spelling of the Wesendonck name, expresses the opinion that had Frau Wesendonck lived longer she would herself have written an Introduction to this volume; and explains that Wagner's wish that these letters should be destroyed has been carried out in part—"the originals no longer exist." Mr. Ellis has also rearranged the Zurich letters in the light of internal evidence. From every point of view, including that of the printer and binder, 'Richard Wagner to Mathilde Wesendonck' is a most attractive volume. The illustrations of the German edition have been retained, and in addition there are facsimiles of themes for "Parzival" and "Die Meistersinger" (Sachs's Cobbler Song) and of the concert-close for the "Tristan" prelude dated Paris, December 15, 1859.

Bygones Worth Remembering. By George Jacob Holyoake. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1905. 2 vols., 295, 301 pages, with index and portraits.

It were unfortunate for the world if a proportion of brave and clear-sighted spirits did not feel it laid upon them, as did Winkelried, to press forward, at all cost, gathering the spears of opposition and contumely into their own bosoms, and making the way easy and open for humanity at large. Mr. Holyoake is, as was Mr. Bradlaugh, a man of this stamp. He has fought his way for himself and others, and now, in his eighty-eighth year, finds himself respected by all whose opinion is worth having. In 'Bygones Worth Remembering,' he gives us two delightful volumes, brim-full of interesting reminiscences of well-known men and women, replete with wisdom and kindly feeling. He states many facts, he corrects many fallacies, that should claim the consideration of historians of British politics during the nineteenth century. Seldom have we read a book breathing a more tender, tolerant, and judicial spirit. He thus prefaces his chapters on individual character:

"It is probably vanity—though I disguise it under the name of pride—that induces me to insert here certain incidents. Nevertheless, pride is the major motive. When I have been near unto death, and have asked myself what has been the consolation of this life, I have found it in cherished memories of illustrious persons of thought and action, whose friendship I have shared."

And he places in the forefront of these Harriet Martineau and William Lloyd Garrison.

The history of the gradual change in his opinions, from those of a youthful Sunday School teacher and evangelical preacher to those held in mature life, is deeply interesting. Under all mutations of belief, he never lost his tenderness of feeling for the convictions of others.

"We should 'go on loving men, but not expecting too much of them.' . . . Whatever my convictions, I was always the same to my mother. The wish to change her views never entered my mind. She had chosen her own. I respected her choice, and she respected mine. In after years, when I visited Birmingham, I would read the Bible to her. She liked to hear my voice again as she had heard it in earlier days. When her eyes became dim by time, I would send her large-type editions of the New Testament, and of religious works which dwelt upon the human tenderness of Christ. . . . The piety of parents should be sacred in the eyes of children. Convictions are the food of the soul, which perishes on any other diet than that which can be assimilated by the conscience."

This side of Mr. Holyoake's character is not at all the one by which the world has generally known him.

There are suggestive chapters on "The Peril of Scruples," "Taking Sides," "Mistrust of Moderation," "New Convictions Which Came Unsought," "Difficulty of Knowing Men"; but the most interesting sections are those in which Mr. Holyoake gives reminiscences and discusses the characters of eminent persons with whom he was brought closely in contact—Lewes, George Eliot, Cobden, Miss Martineau, Mazzini, Garibaldi, Mill, Gladstone, Herbert Spencer. We are introduced to a third brother Newman, of whom few may have before heard. Of all, Mr. Holyoake has something fresh to say. For example:

"Some women, not distinguished for personal beauty when young, become handsome and queenly later in life. It was so with Harriet Martineau. George Eliot did not come up to Herbert Spencer's conception of personal charm. One day, when she was living at Godstone, she drove to the station to meet Mr. Lewes. He and I were travelling together at that time, and he caused the train to be delayed a few minutes that I might run down into the valley to meet his wife. I had not seen George Eliot for some years, and was astonished at the stately grace she had acquired."

Our author has unbounded admiration for Mazzini and Garibaldi, and was secretary and principal mover in enlisting and dispatching an English contingent to the help of the latter in his Sicilian campaign. He accepts the judgment of a contemporary speaking of Mill's power in debate: "He passed over his adversary like a ploughshare over a mouse." The events of late years led him to acknowledge the reasonableness of Mill's misgivings in respect of the operation of the ballot and the wide extension of the franchise. He calls to mind a passage in 'Felix Holt': "Ignorant power comes in the end to the same thing as wicked power," and adds: "But there is this difference in its nature: 'Ignorant power' can be instructed, and experience may teach it; but 'wicked power' has an evil purpose, intelligently fixed and implacably determined."

We are treated to a parallel between Voltaire and Gladstone, greatly to the credit of both, but too long to quote. But we take over this regarding George Eliot:

"She held as a solemn conviction—the result of a lifetime of observation—that in proportion as the thoughts of men and women are removed from the earth on which they live, are diverted from their own mutual relations and responsibilities, of which they alone know anything, to an invisible world which can alone be appreciated by belief, they are led to neglect their duty to each other, to squander their strength in vain speculations which can result in no profit to themselves or their fellow-creatures, which diminish their capacity for strenuous and worthy action during a span of life, brief, indeed, but whose consequences will extend to remote posterity."

Many will differ from some of our author's opinions and estimates. "A fraud in war is only a little less base than a fraud in business." Stratagem and fraud are of the very essence of war. "To this day the House of Lords is an alien power in England." Its power appears more firmly enthroned than ever, through the will of a democratic England which could at any time end or mend it. Mr. Holyoake says that Cobden "introduced more immorality into politics than any other public man in my time, . . . by advising electors to vote for any candidate, irrespective of his

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politics, who would vote for the repeal of the Corn Laws." Neither Mr. Cobden nor Mr. Bright, who is coupled with him in the same regard in another passage, is so specially guilty. Such opinions are shared, such advice is given, by all who believe the reform they desire is at the basis of social order. It may be true that "the affair of the Phœnix Park showed that the English nation did not go mad in the face of desperate outrage." They did worse: for the crime of half a dozen men they condemned all Ireland to permanent political disabilities, as they never would have condemned their own country. The pious who have regarded Mr. Holyoake's opinions with horror, will find it difficult to reconcile the occurrences related in the chapter entitled "Adventures in the Streets" with any theory of special providences. He narrates sixteen narrow escapes from mutilation or death. "I have no theory of my many exemptions from fatal consequences. All I can say is that, had I been a saint, I could not have been more fortunate."

The last chapter, in which is summed up all that has been gained for humanity of late years, is a forcible indictment of "good old times" theories. The nineteen portraits scattered through these volumes add to their interest, but are of unequal merit.

The Jordan Valley and Petra. By William Libbey, Sc.D., and Franklin E. Hoskins, D.D. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1905. Two volumes, pp. xv., 353, viii., 380.

This work is beautifully illustrated with more than 150 half-tone reproductions of photographs taken by the travellers, over fifty of which are photographs from Petra. When we have said this, we have said the best there is to be said. Dr. Libbey, professor of physical geography at Princeton University, made a compact twenty years ago with one of his then pupils to visit Petra and the region east and south of the Dead Sea. During these twenty years that pupil, Dr. Hoskins, has been a missionary in Syria. The experience there acquired enabled him to make very efficient provision for the proposed journey, which was at last undertaken in the spring of 1902. In the introductory chapter we are told that Professor Libbey's purpose in this journey "was to study the valley of the Jordan, from beginning to end." In point of fact the travellers did follow the Jordan fairly closely from Banias to the lower end of the Sea of Galilee. The rest of their route lay on the eastern side of the Jordan, as far away from that stream as are Nablûs and Jerusalem on the western side; and indeed the Jordan might as well be studied by a trip from Nazareth over Nablus to Jerusalem as by the route which the travellers followed.

The first volume is occupied by very minute descriptions of the composition of the caravan, the method in which one should deal with the natives, etc., with an itinerary of the journey, and statements as to the history of the places visited, including occasional pious remarks about their Bible character. There is absolutely nothing, until Madeba is reached, toward the end of the first volume, which is new or of any interest to any one except the travellers, aside from the photographs, some of which are new views and worth possessing. It is, however, with Madeba that the photographs become particularly interesting and valuable, because available pictures of the section from Madeba southward are so scarce. We find here fresh information regarding present conditions at Madeba and Kerak, and there are some admirable descriptions of the contour of the country and of the great gorges which descend from the plateau of Moab to the Dead Sea, especially the ancient valley of the Arnon, of which the authors say that it "has no equal upon earth, except the Colorado cañon in the United States."

A little more than one-half of the second volume is devoted to a description of Petra, where the travellers remained for five days, camping in the very heart of the city. In spite of the opportunity which this comparatively long sojourn in Petra afforded, they cannot be said to have added to our information with regard to that site. With the exception of a couple of insignificant fragments of Nabathean funerary inscriptions and some interesting rock cuttings on the northwestern edge of the citadel rock, which they supposed to be a high place, they seem to have seen nothing new. The plan used is the old plan of Laborde and Linant, reduced in scale. Unfortunately, it is so reproduced as to fail entirely to give the idea that Petra occupies a great depression in the surface of the rock, with almost precipitous walls on all sides. Unless one were already pretty familiar with the site, one would be hopelessly bewildered in attempting to apply the plan to the descriptions of the text. We read of an east wall, of a north wall, etc., but there is no indication of anything of the sort on the plan. The same plan reproduced in Baedeker gives some idea of the character of the site. Considering the peculiarly favorable opportunity which the travellers had, the results as represented here are extremely disappointing. The only material approximating a scientific contribution to our knowledge is contained in a statement of Dr. Libbey's theory of the formation of the Jordan rift, covering less than two pages (259-260), and an appendix by Mr. Van Ingen with a few plates of the fossils and rocks brought back by Dr. Libbey. On the return journey from Petra the party crossed the ghor just to the south of the Dead Sea, thence proceeding to Jerusalem on the west side of the Jordan. The whole trip from Beirut to Jerusalem here described occupied forty-one days.

Constantine the Great. By John B. Firth. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1905. [The Heroes of the Nations Series.]

In this learned and thoughtful book Mr. Firth has touched upon nearly all the questions which render the character of Constantine a puzzle and his reign an era of perpetual fascination. If the modern writer wishes to save himself trouble, he will take strong ground either for or against the Emperor, because in both cases a fine show of evidence can be mustered from the fourth century to support the position adopted. But when Lactantius comes to be compared with Zosimus and Eusebius with Julian, difficulties emerge which can properly be faced only in a mood of painstaking enquiry and candid hesitation. Mr. Firth places a good deal of reliance upon Eutropius wherever he can be used, but the brevity of this author is such that he cannot be taken as a satisfactory guide in most matters of detail. Few writers attempt nowadays to exculpate Constantine from the charge of having put to death, in a mood of anger or suspicion, his son Crispus and his wife Fausta. Such crimes belong in a different class from the ordinary assassinations that accompanied the rise of a Roman general to imperial power—assassinations, in the present case, like those of Maximian, Licinius, Licinianus and Cæsar Bassus. Whatever meaning they may have, they point to the existence in Constantine of sharply conflicting instincts. At times he is a savage, but most of his acts point to an appreciation of higher standards than were grasped by most Romans of the later Empire.

Mr. Firth finds in a phrase of Eutropius a hint of the fact which accounts for many of the contradictions and inconsistencies in the Emperor's career. *Aliquantum mutavit*—that is to say, as he grew older he changed somewhat and changed for the worse. That the epitomist is not hostile in his general tone may be gathered from such a passage as this:

"At the opening of his reign, Constantine was a man who challenged comparison with the best of princes; at its close he deserved comparison with those of average merit and demerit. Both mentally and physically his good points were beyond computation and conspicuous to all. . . . He was devoted to the arts of peace and to the humanities, and he sought to win from all men their sincere affection by his generosity and his tractability, never losing an opportunity of enriching his friends and adding to their dignity."

Aurelius Victor bears testimony to the same process, when he contrasts the irreproachable character of Constantine's rule during the first ten years of his reign with the reckless extravagance that marked its close. From Eusebius, of course, nothing but adulation can be expected, but Zosimus and Julian unite in stigmatizing the love of adulation and self-indulgence, which finally overcame the active and clear-sighted hero of the battle at the Milvian Bridge.

The practical effect of accepting this view of Constantine's development is that one is forced thereby to give up a popular theory. The first of the Christian emperors ceases to be a mere political schemer and a convert because conversion helped him to win a throne. On the other hand, Constantine stands out as one who had a genuine interest in Christianity, but was unable to resist the temptations which were placed in his way by the exercise of absolute power. The last twelve years of the reign present a strange medley of contradictions. In 325 the Emperor is at Nicæa, presiding at the first general council with all the dignity and decency imaginable. In 326 he is at Rome giving orders for the execution of Crispus, and shortly afterwards for that of Fausta. Between 326 and 330 he is building Constantinople with all the clear-sightedness of a great statesman; and yet with such haste and neglect of architectural precaution that large parts of the town fall an easy prey to earthquakes. From 330 to 335, he is occupying a singular position between Arians and Catholics—meaning to be a Christian, but not holding a clear course with reference to the great dogmatic issue, and postponing the date of his baptism as long as possible, perhaps in hope that his chance of heaven would be brighter if his life after baptism were im-

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maculate. In 335 he divides the Empire among his children, without any such reference to the public welfare as had actuated Diocletian when he established the prætorian prefectures, but rather in the spirit of a father dividing a private patrimony among his sons. This act is, in the opinion of Mr. Firth, the most marked proof of his degeneracy which can be cited. "Such a partition meant the stultification of his political career, for he thus destroyed at a blow the political unity which he had so laboriously restored out of the wreck of the system of Diocletian."

Professor Bury has said that "the evidence seems to show that Constantine's religion was a syncretistic monotheism; that he was content to see the deity in the sun, in Mithras, or in the God of the Hebrews." From this view Mr. Firth differs entirely, in so far as it applies to Constantine's attitude towards religion after the overthrow of Maxentius. Two facts are usually taken to disprove the sincerity of Constantine's adherence to the Christian faith. These are the atrocities he committed after he had openly declared himself a Christian, and his unwillingness to use the full leverage of his imperial position against paganism. But Mr. Firth, who would be the last to extenuate Constantine's misdemeanors, ranks him among convinced, though not among devout, Christians. A proneness to superstition he admits, along with a gross materialism of religious conception, such as saw the confirmation of Christianity in his own triumph. But, says Mr. Firth,

"had he been indifferent to religion, or indifferent to Christianity, had he even been anxious only to hold the balance between the rival creeds, he would never have surrounded himself with episcopal advisers; never have set his hand to such edicts as those we have quoted; never have abolished the use of the cross for the execution of criminals, or have forbidden Jews to own Christian slaves; never have called the whole world time and again to witness his zeal for Christ; never have lavished the resources of the Empire upon the building of sumptuous churches; never have listened with such extraordinary forbearance to the wranglings of the Donatists and the subtleties of Arians and Athanasians; never have summoned or presided at the Council of Nicæa; and certainly never have made the welfare of non-Roman Christians the subject of entreaty with the King of Persia."

Though written as a volume for a popular series, this book should not escape the attention of scholars, since it is based upon a first-hand study of the authorities, and is the fruit of independent reflection.

Giotto. By Basil de Selincourt. (Library of Art.) London: Duckworth; New York: Scribners. 1905.

In the face of what has already appeared, especially of recent years, in the way of serious and authoritative criticism on the same subject, M. de Selincourt has evidently not been lacking in either courage or self-confidence in taking upon himself the task of again discussing, in a book of something over 200 pages, the personality and genius of the great Florentine master. Although evidently written *con amore*, and with a sincere but at the same time laudably temperate enthusiasm and appreciation, it is hardly distinguished by any exceptional novelty or originality of thought, and the author can be said to have added little, if anything, to the now generally accepted estimate of Giotto and his work. There is even less to justify the somewhat aggressive tone which he allows himself to adopt at times, in regard to certain other critics of the so-called "modern" school. We sympathize to no small extent with M. de Selincourt's attitude in these respects, but his championship of tradition is not always supported by the soundest of defences.

As was to be expected, the author follows, in the main, the older and more traditional list and chronological arrangement of Giotto's works. He looks upon the frescoes from the life of St. Francis in the Upper Church at Assisi as the earliest manifestation of the master's art, although he seems himself in doubt as to the authenticity of the last nine subjects, so obviously the work of another hand. He then passes to the Allegories in the Lower Church, as being next in date, refusing to accept the fine series in the right transept. The very early "Stefaneschi" altar-piece at Rome he considers subsequent in execution to the Allegories. He denies Giotto's participation in the strong works in the Chapel of the Magdalene at Assisi, using again, as one of his arguments, the lack of traditional confirmation of it. He summarily dismisses from the list of Giotto's works—"at least in their present state"—and to our mind rightly, though he gives no reasons, the damaged frescoes in the Florentine Bargello; casts a possible doubt upon the altar-piece in the Louvre; makes no mention of the fine little "Presentation" belonging to Mrs. Gardner in Boston, and passes over, with equal silence, the exceedingly Giottoesque frescoes in the Refectory of S. Antonio at Padua.

As is usual, the greater part of the book is, of necessity, given up to the frescoes of the Paduan Arena and the Bardi and Peruzzi chapels in Santa Croce, at Florence. In the author's comments on these works there is much that is both interesting and suggestive—much that bespeaks the intelligent and appreciative amateur, in fact, rather than the sterner and less emotional critic. Frankly speaking, it is precisely here that M. de Selincourt's book may lay claim to its saving merits; taken as a guide-book, it will serve its purpose perhaps as well as, if not better than, most of the volumes which have hitherto occupied themselves with an exposition of the master's works, and as such will form even a welcome addition to the descriptive literature of its kind. We should, perhaps, have dwelt less at length upon its defects were it not for its pretensions, and for the fact that M. de Selincourt falls under a graver imputation than that of any critical shortcoming—one which he shares with several other recent writers upon art, viz., the only too obvious and studied suppression of all allusion to preceding authorities to whom his pages show, in far more places than one, an evident indebtedness. We should not have alluded to this fact did it not touch upon a habit that is becoming too general among a certain class of writers to pass longer unnoticed.

Pictures in Umbria. By Katherine S. Macquoid. With fifty original illustrations by Thomas R. Macquoid, R.I. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1905. Pp. xvi+319.

The genesis of this book appears to be as follows: In the early eighties the authoress spent several weeks or months in Perugia, where she seems to have enjoyed a very pleasant and not unprofitable holiday, visiting all the principal objects of interest in the city itself, and making the usual excursions to Assisi, Spello, Foligno, and Lake Trasimeno. To a keen eye for the beauties of nature and an appreciative, if not very discriminating, interest in art, she added a knack of ingratiating herself with the common people, whose quaint sayings she carefully recorded. For nearly twenty years the information thus acquired lay fallow, and then, with the assistance of M. Paul Sabatier's 'Vie de Saint François,' the chronicle of Matarazzo, the 'Fioretti,' 'The Legend of the Three Companions,' and Miss Duff Gordon's 'Story of Assisi,' she compiled the work before us.

It would be easy to point out numerous inaccuracies, but the book is evidently not intended for students; and probably nobody would be more surprised than Mrs. Macquoid herself if we were to take her seriously. What is of far greater importance, considering the class of readers to whom these pages will appeal, is the fact that, although the authoress writes in the present tense, she describes a Perugia which is in many respects different from the Perugia of to-day; and we can well imagine the exasperation of the tourist who, using her book as a guide, goes to look for the fountain in the Piazza del Sopramuro, or for the statue of Pope Julius in the Piazza del Papa. In the place of the former he will find the Garibaldi monument; while the latter has been removed to make way for the electric trams.

One excellent thing Mrs. Macquoid has done, and it should be noted to her credit: she has called attention to the too little-known museum of Professor Bellucci, with its unique collection of charms and amulets; but, when all has been said, the illustrations are by far the most interesting feature of the book. It was worth publishing for them alone.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Annandale, Nelson. The Faroes and Iceland. Oxford: University Press; New York: H. Frowde. $1.50 net.
Bowley, Arthur L. England's Foreign Trade in the Nineteenth Century. Imported by Charles Scribner's Sons.
Brown, G. Baldwin. William Hogarth. Imported by Scribners.
Corpus Poetarum Latinorum. Edited by J. P. Postgate. Fasc. V. London: George Bell & Sons.
Fletcher, William I., and Mary Poole. Poole's Index to Periodical Literature: Abridgement Supplement. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $5 net.
Gibb, E. J. W. A History of Ottoman Poetry. Vol. IV. Edited by Edward G. Browne. London: Luzac & Co.
Gray, Charles H. Lodowick Carliell: His Life and a Discussion of his Plays. Chicago: University Press. $1.50 net.
Hall, Charles Cuthbert. The Redeemed Life after Death. Fleming H. Revell Co. 50 cents net.
Kellogg, Vernon L. American Insects. Henry Holt & Co. $5 net.
Lott, Noah. The Silly Syclopedia. G. W. Dillingham Co.
Miles, Eustace. An Alphabet of Athletics. Dutton. 75 cents net.
Nesbit, E. The Rainbow and the Rose. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50 net.
Pasture, (Mrs.) Henry de la. Peter's Mother. Dutton. $1.50.
Villari, Luigi. Russia under the Great Shadow. James Pott & Co. $3.50 net.
Vitelleschi, Marchesa. The Romance of Savoy. 2 vols. Dutton. $7.50 net.
Welcker, Adair. For People Who Laugh, San Francisco: Adair Welcker. $1.25.
Wilson, H. L. The Boss of Little Arcady. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co. $1.50.
Wollant, Grégoire de. The Land of the Rising Sun. The Neale Publishing Co. $1.50.
Viollet, Paul. Infaillibilité et Syllabus: Répose aux Etudes. Besançon: Jacquin.
Wrong, George M. The Earl of Elgin. London: Methuen & Co.
Young, George. Corps de Droit Ottoman. 3 vols. Oxford: University Press; New York: H. Frowde.
Zampini Salazar, Fanny, Cavalieri Moderni. Rome; Enrico Voghera.

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